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THE HISTORY OF EARLY EDUCATION.

I. INTRODUCTION.

The History of Education hangs on the History of the World. No thorough survey of it is possible which does not presume a considerable acquaintance with the history of the leading races which have occupied and subdued the earth and formed themselves into civilized societies.

At what successive periods did these races enter on a progressive civilization ; what were the leading intellectual and moral characteristics of each ; under what circumstances of climate, soil, and contention with other nascent or dying nations were their native characteristics developed and moulded ; and what was the issue of all to the wealth, the life, the thought, the art of humanity ?—these are all questions which concern us intimately as students of the history of education. For the history of the education of a people is the history of its civilization ; and its civilization finds its record mainly in its intellectual, moral, and aesthetic achievements, and only in a subordinate way in its material successes.

To treat of the education of the human race in its broadest conception—to speak of all the influences which have made it what it is—would be to attempt a philosophy of history. We have, accordingly, to narrow our view ; and this we can do only by first narrowing the scope of the word education. The education of the ancient Egyptians, for example, is not synonymous with the history of the civilization of that race as a factor in the universal history of man. At the same time, it is impossible to speak intelligently of the education of that remarkable people without forming a pretty clear conception of the ideal of life and character to which they

unconsciously attained, or after which they consciously strove. For by education, even in the narrow sense in which the word must be employed in this place, I mean the means which a nation, with more or less definiteness of purpose, takes for bringing up its youth with a view to their maintaining the national ideal of character and promoting the welfare of the nation as an organized ethical community. It is essential, therefore, to an understanding of this, that we should understand the objects which the nation, as such, desired to secure; in brief, its own more or less conscious ideal of national life, character, honor, and progress. If we can ascertain this by the study of its highest products in men, deeds, and arts, we have made a great step towards interpreting the course of training to which it would naturally endeavor to subject its youth.

For this is what specially interests us. What was the nature of the discipline by means of which each generation hoped to rear up fit successors to itself; how did it give effect to that discipline; and over what area of the population did that discipline extend? The answer to these questions gives us the state of education in any individual country; and the tracing of the successive changes in educational aims and practice gives us the history of education in that country.

In the general history of education, however, it is the first part of our inquiry which must specially engage our attention. The materials for satisfying the second part are, in the case of ancient nations, not always available, and we must be content therefore with a knowledge of their educational ideas and methods at their best epoch—the point at which they had reached their highest intellectual moral energy and given the world all they had to give by way of contribution to its progress.

We may quickly despatch the vast variety of tribes which are still in a savage state, and which, either by innate incapacity for development, or by the force of irresistible external circumstances, have risen little above the beasts that perish. The human possibilities of such tribes may be, in germ, as high as those of many more favored races; but this is more than doubtful. They labor to acquire skill in getting food by the exercise either of bodily vigor or successful cunning; and they cherish the virtue of bravery in warding off the attacks of others like themselves. As they have, however, no political or ethical ideal, they can have

no education in the sense in which we use the term, or care to use it. For training to expertness in the use of the weapons of the chase or of war is not education, except in the narrowest technical sense. It is only when the *idea* of bodily vigor, of personal bravery, and of manly strength and beauty become desired for themselves or as the necessary conditions of political life that education begins; and then the training which is consciously undertaken to produce these has an ideal aim, more or less conscious. A training which contemplates an aim for the man as such is education in the proper sense of the term.

It is only, then, with those nations which, by virtue of their ordered civilization, had an idea of individual and of national life, and which, by virtue of their having this idea, possessed a civilization, that we have to do. The races which chiefly interest us are the Indo-European or Aryan, to which we ourselves belong, and it might be sufficient to trace the History of Education among the peoples who bear the Aryan character, as that has developed itself west of the Caucasus; but we might feel the survey of educational history to be imperfect if we did so, and it is desirable, therefore, to comprehend other centers of civilization, such as the Egyptian, the Semitic, and Chinese, and not wholly to omit the Aryan element south-east of the Caucasus.

We are compelled, I have said, from lack of records, to confine ourselves in dealing with the education of ancient nations to the highest and most generalized expression of their educational life, and this for want of materials to do anything else; but we know enough to be able to say that as the ideal of life grows in a nation, its idea of education grows and it begins to ask more and more in a self-conscious way, How can we attain this ideal in the persons of our children? Thus arise *systems* of education in civilized countries. Such systems as really have existed prior to the asking of this question, are not consciously constructed with a view to a specific result. Nations, like individuals, feel their way to the highest expression of their national life and to the best machinery for sustaining and promoting it, taught by the results of experience and their ever-growing understanding of the nature and destiny of man and the conditions of national permanence.

Thus it is that the education of a nation has always been determined mainly by its moral and spiritual instructors who are the conservators of its thought. These instructors have in all ages.

been more or less identified with the church, in one form or other ; and if there be no church, then by that which takes its place—the political ideal of life for the citizen, which generally embodies religious, if not also theological, conceptions. The educational aim is always practical, in the large sense of the word ; for it has always to do with life in some form or other, and indeed presumes a philosophy of life. Even the study of philosophy and its hand-maid religion, and of poetry that irradiates both with the glow of human emotion, has a practical aim—the nobler life of a man as an individual and as a citizen : and when it forgets this aim it degenerates into verbal frivolities.

The influences which educate a nation, to which I have briefly or by implication adverted, seem to demand further consideration if we are to prepare our minds properly for the contemplation of educational world-history.

The education of a people is, *first* of all, the unpremeditated education of national character, institutions, and of the instinctive ideals of personal and community life—all in contact with certain external conditions, and moulding, or being moulded, by these. *Secondly*, it is the means a people may consciously take, but *without a systematized purpose*, for handing down its tradition through the family, the organized state or the school, or all of these combined. *Thirdly*, the education of a country, while comprehending both the preceding forms of education, may be a more or less self-conscious organization of the idea and aims of the national life, and the reduction of these to an elaborate State school-system, which meets the presumed needs of the citizen at every age from infancy to manhood.

Into every form of national education the professional and technical must always enter at some point, and may thwart or promote the larger general aim. For all civilized societies demand services of a specific kind, which can fitly be discharged only by those who are trained to discharge them. The division of occupations, all of which are in their degree serviceable to the community, makes this specific training necessary, if the service is to be efficiently rendered. Thus we have classes of the population trained and devoted to the various industrial arts, to the fine arts, to the service of man's body—the medical art ; the service of mutual rights—the legal art ; the service of man's spirit—the priestly art, of which last the teaching art is a branch ; to the military art ; and so forth.

In our modern complex civilizations the educational problem is, How shall we conserve the national type, tradition, and ideal, and, while training for specific arts, educate all to such type of manhood as their racial possibilities and tradition admit of? In other words, we have to find a common basis for education, and also to provide a specific training to various social services.

The education of a man as a member of a nation and for manhood simply is what we mean by "liberal" education: the training for specific services is technical, whether we dignify some of these services by calling them professions or not. The stress of competition among individuals and nations compels us, unhappily, more and more to give a specific character to our training, and to ignore the larger national and human aims. It is clear, however, that in so far as we lose sight of the latter in the interest of the former we err: because it is the broad human and national element in education which gives character and power. If we fail in giving these, all specific activities of mind will be weakened by the weakening of their foundation in the man simply as a man. In the systematization of education, accordingly, the real problem is (in modern times), How shall we rear specific aptitudes on the basis of a common instruction and discipline which shall contemplate the man and the citizen, and only in the second place the worker?

Passing this modern problem meanwhile and confining ourselves to the education of the individual in the broad sense, we find that all civilized nations have had a more or less conscious system when they have had a more or less conscious aim. Not, it is true, embodied in a school-system but always active in the family and the civic life. Historically viewed we find that the state is made up of families not individuals. Each man is what his fathers have made him, and what he is even now making his children. He himself is but a transition point from the past to the future. Alongside this family tradition of education is the state tradition as embodied in laws and institutions, religious and civic, and these two influences together are sufficient to educate a nation in certain circumstances. This is the first of the three forms of national education to which I have adverted above. The Romans were educated in this way and they had moulded themselves and their state for 500 years, and were already marked for empire, before they had any schools. So also the Persians were a brilliant and imperial nation without schools in the modern sense of the

word. Hellenic education again, for probably two centuries before Socrates, was an illustration of the second form of national education in which state tradition and institutions combined with schools (existing but as yet undeveloped) to form the Greek mind and body. In post-Socratic times, the Greek became self-conscious in his educational aims—he had a type of man whom he aimed at producing; and the Romans towards the end of the Republic followed, with some differences, the leading of Greece.

What is true of Greece before Socrates is true also of Egypt for 3000 years before Christ, and of the Jews till after the exile.

The only nations in pre-Christian times that had attained to the third form of national education before the Christian era were the Chinese and the Doric Greeks as represented by the Spartans. The former had a definite ideal of human excellence such as it was, but always with a view to the service of a bureaucratic state. So with the Spartans where the whole organization (but the Spartans were, after all, a mere tribe) was educational and every free born citizen was deliberately formed to a certain ideal—also (as in China) in the interests of civic continuity.

The Hellenic races, however, had no conception of education as a *human* need and a *human* right; they thought only of the free, pure Greeks who formed an aristocracy among a body of inferiors. This characteristic of the Greeks was specially emphasized in Sparta. In Egypt, Judea, Persia, and China, on the other hand, nothing stood, theoretically at least, between the lowest member of the community and the best the state could offer in the way of education, except poverty. The Romans also, thought only of the upper section of society. It was the Stoics in the earlier imperial times who first rose to the conception of humanity and of human, as distinct from local and national, rights, and Christianity about the same time affirmed these. The Stoic and the Christian were the first humanitarians.

In taking a survey of the history of education we have to bear in mind the distinctions I have made (and which might with advantage be even further elaborated) and carry them always with us. If we do not, we shall certainly fail to interpret facts aright and to learn the lessons which the past has to teach.

To this conclusion we must, I think, be all compelled, that while fully recognizing the educative influence of national forms, customs and institutions, the most powerful influence on the men-

tal growth of the child is the parent, because he focuses and transmits these. The family, in a special sense, is and must always be the center of true education. If the family is safe and sound, the state is safe and sound. And when owing to social necessities, a class of the community is set apart to do the work of the family, that class must be in every sense *in loco parentis*:—that is to say, the aims, materials, and methods of the school must be those of a humane and enlightened parent, and the influence of the school must be, as much as possible, a continuation and extension of the family conception of education, rather than a substitute for it. If this single idea is accepted, the deductions from it will be found to be numerous and significant.

(*To be continued.*)

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LATIN IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL.

The educational world has been busily engaged in recent years in "taking account of stock." The various studies and methods employed for purposes of instruction and discipline have been taken down from the shelves, so to speak, and subjected to fresh inspection, with the object of determining whether they still possess a market value. In this process it has been the ancient classics whose worth has been chiefly called in question. From various quarters and with varying degrees of logic and vehemence these time-honored studies have repeatedly been arraigned. While the attack has been directed mainly against the classics as college studies, and more particularly against Greek than Latin, yet Latin has been, and still is, the object of fierce assault, not only as a part of the college curriculum, but as a study of the secondary schools as well. It is on this latter subject—Latin in the secondary school—that I shall venture to make a few observations touching its claims and the methods by which it may be made an efficient instrument of discipline and culture. The discussion, therefore, is not a general discussion of the utility of the classics, nor is it a consideration of the claims or position of Latin in the college or university. This caution seems necessary at the outset, since many persons, when one of the classical languages is men-

tioned, are unable to dissociate it from the other. I well remember an occasion when I had been making a somewhat lengthy and elaborate plea in behalf of Latin in the grammar school, that a leading educator who joined in the discussion, took me to task for proposing to teach Latin *and Greek* to children of tender age. My only surprise is that he had not added Hebrew and Sanskrit to the indictment. To guard against misapprehension therefore, let it be clearly understood that the present paper proposes to deal with Latin exclusively, and with Latin in the secondary school,—not in the college.

To begin with, it seems to me that the fundamental purpose of Latin in the secondary school is often overlooked by the opponents of the study. Some of these assume that this purpose is the acquisition of the ability to read or speak the Latin language, and very properly deny the utility of either of these accomplishments for the great mass of pupils in our secondary schools. Others fancy the aim is to familiarize the pupil more intimately with the history of the past, and though conceding to this a certain value they are nevertheless constrained to deny that the result is commensurate with the expenditure of time and energy involved in its attainment. Yet others hold that Latin should be studied because it leaves behind it a certain impalpable, indefinable deposit of culture. All of these objects—except perhaps learning to speak Latin—are properly included in the purposes of Latin teaching, but they are not the main object. If they were, and if no other and no larger results might be expected from Latin study in our schools, than those just mentioned, I for one should be inclined to join the opponents of Latin in questioning its utility for the great body of students of the secondary education. I should still defend its retention for the benefit of those who are seeking preparation for the classical courses in our colleges, but I should not dare maintain, as I now do, that Latin is of the greatest value for all pupils in the secondary school, whether they are intending to go to college or not.

What then is the purpose of Latin study at this stage of education? As its prime object I should unhesitatingly put training in the mother tongue,—*i. e.*, for us Americans, training in English. As to the desirability of such training, educators are at present speaking with no uncertain voice. Our educational conventions and periodicals are full of the subject, college presidents

vie with each other in emphasizing its importance, the press has taken up the cry,—from all quarters comes the demand for better training in English. Taken with all it implies and involves, this demand really embraces all there is of education. An educated man is the man who is master of his native speech; and when a distinguished college president declares it to be the purpose of the institution of which he is the head, to teach young men to write and speak good English, we must admit that, in the highest and best sense, that is the object of all education—of school and college alike. At least no one may claim to be educated who is not master of the resources of his mother tongue, for the purpose of oral and written expression,—who cannot use it with clearness, vigor, and effect. As regards the advantage of such a mastery, there will obviously be no difference of opinion. The question is: How does Latin study contribute to that end? Simply by the minute and searching study it constantly involves of English words and phrases,—*i. e.*, of the instruments of English thought. From the beginning of Latin study translation from Latin into English becomes a daily exercise. Now this process is far from being the purely mechanical one which many assume. It is true that the pupil is furnished with a vocabulary which supplies him with the meanings of the Latin word. But it is seldom that the Latin and the English word are co-extensive in meaning; the vocabulary gives six, eight, or ten synonymous expressions, between which a choice must be made. The simplest Latin sentence thus often raises puzzling questions to the pupil who is seeking its most perfect rendering. One word or phrase is clearer, more precise, more elegant than another. To choose wisely the pupil must compare the different forms of expression suggested; he must weigh and study them, often consulting his English dictionary or other sources. When he has canvassed the field and made his choice, he is ready to give his English rendering of the Latin.

To some all this seems merely a triumph of ingenuity, as though in determining the meaning of the passage the pupil had simply solved a puzzle, as it were. That is only a part—and the least significant part—of the process. The pupil has not merely determined the meaning of the sentence or passage, but he has put this meaning in an English form. In doing this he has incidentally gained new light on the meaning of English words.

Words that before expressed to him the same general—possibly somewhat vague—notion, now stand out with clearly defined differences. Instead of being identical in scope and content, they are seen to represent, it may be, parts of a greater whole, or possibly different phases of the same idea—one the subjective, the other the objective, one the concrete, the other the abstract,—in short the pupil is initiated into the process of discriminating, of drawing fine distinctions between closely related conceptions and alternative forms of expression. It is precisely this which gives one the capacity to wield one's vernacular with skill and power, and which marks the educated man from the uneducated.

— Nor is it merely an exercise in discrimination in the use of single words that the study of Latin affords. Often the *method of expression* of a complex Latin thought differs radically from the English idiom. The Latin sentence structure is periodic, involving clause after clause in an order and in relations which are unfamiliar to the English mind. Here again the pupil finds scope for attaining skill in English expression. It is not merely a question of finding subject and predicate, but of finding an exact equivalent, in *idiomatic English*, of the Latin. The long periodic sentence must be broken up; subordinate clauses must be turned into principal ones; ablatives absolute must be converted into clauses introduced by appropriate conjunctions, and the different parts of the sentence so arranged as to bring out with distinctness in English the thought-perspective of the Latin. This task is seldom easy; often it is very severe. It necessitates careful tests at each stage of the work, and not infrequently repeated trials and awkward failures are a necessary preliminary to a rendering which shall do justice to the Latin original. Yet all this time the pupil is undergoing wholesome discipline in composition and style. In casting about for the best rendering of his Latin sentence, he sees that one form lacks clearness, another simplicity; yet another destroys the perspective, giving undue emphasis to what is trivial, or failing to accent what is important. Finally, by successive trials he arrives at the order and arrangement which best represents the meaning of the Latin sentence in all its complex relationships.

The advantages of such discipline as I have just been describing over the usual forms of composition in English are, at the particular stage of education of which we are speaking, great and

obvious. Original composition must necessarily deal only with the ideas already present in the pupil's mind. How elementary and crude these are in case of the pupils in our secondary schools, is a fact sufficiently familiar to us all. The reflective period has not usually begun at the age when the pupil enters upon the secondary education; he finds it difficult to write an English theme because he has nothing to write about. But set before him a passage of Latin, elevated in thought and well expressed, with the problem of putting this in the best English he can command. In the first place he is relieved of the necessity of hunting aimlessly about for ideas which do not exist in his brain; and in the second place he is raised above the plane of his ordinary thinking, and in this higher atmosphere grows familiar with concepts and ideas which might otherwise long remain foreign or at least vague to him. All things considered I do not hesitate to say that I believe there is a considerable period in the earlier portion of the secondary training when Latin translation, if rightly conducted, may wisely be made practically the exclusive instrument of special instruction in English composition.

It is, of course, manifest that the foregoing argument, if valid, applies equally to other languages than Latin, and many will doubtless be inclined to advocate the advantages of French or German, as superior to those of Latin. While not denying the usefulness of both these languages when taught with discrimination, yet I see two reasons for giving Latin a decided preference to either. In the first place the concepts and ideas of the Latin language are much remoter from those of English than are those *more remote* of the modern languages. All modern thought is essentially kindred. The same intellectual elements, so to speak, are common to all civilized nations,—particularly to nations so closely in touch as the English, French, and German. This is not true when we come to study either of the ancient languages. The ultimate elements of the thought—*i. e.*, the language—of the Greeks and Romans are as different from ours as is their entire civilization. It is precisely this fundamental difference which makes either of the classical languages of such invaluable discipline. At every stage of the study we are brought in contact with new phases of thought, new ideas; the intellectual horizon is continually widening. The modern languages, on the other hand, sug-

gest relatively much less that is new. Both the matter, and the manner of expression are so directly in the line of our ordinary knowledge and speech, as to give much less occasion to processes of comparison or to that stimulating intellectual grapple which is essential to mental growth. This is particularly true of French, whose thought-forms are so closely kindred to our own. It is less true of German, though even that language suggests vastly fewer differences in ideas,—and consequently vastly fewer opportunities for comparison—than do either Greek or Latin.

There is yet another reason which I should urge in favor of Latin, and that is that Latin has supplied us with so large a share of our own vocabulary. Just what the exact percentage of such words in English is, I do not know. Nor is it material. The number at any rate is very large, and covers every department of thought. For this reason no educated person can safely undertake to dispense with a knowledge of the root words of the Latin language. I mean no such knowledge as comes from memorizing a list of the commoner roots and suffixes along with their meanings, but a knowledge at first hand, and sufficiently comprehensive and thorough to enable one to feel the full significance of the primary words of the Latin. It is on these two grounds—one essentially disciplinary, the other essentially practical—that I would base a preference for Latin, as compared with Greek on the one hand, and with either French or German on the other. This preference, of course, by no means implies that one or more of the other languages just mentioned may not wisely be added to Latin in the secondary school. I most certainly think that this should be done wherever practicable, and would advocate the combination of two languages, as, for example, Latin and Greek, Latin and German, or Latin and French. Latin, however, I should insist upon *as the basal study for all pupils* of the secondary school. More than two languages (Latin for four years, and Greek, German, or French for three years) I should not suggest for an individual pupil, though I am well aware that the colleges are enforcing demands in this direction. With all the advantages and allurements of language study I believe we can easily go too far, and may do damage by neglecting other sides of the pupil's intellect.

I have enlarged sufficiently upon what seems to me the primary end of Latin study in the secondary school, *viz.*, the supe-

rior facilities it offers for training in English. There is yet another humanizing influence of the study, which though of less importance, must not be ignored. I refer to the sympathetic knowledge of Roman history, thought, and institutions which comes from the study of Latin. No one can get so good a view of the personality of that great organizer, Julius Caesar, as the intelligent reader of Caesar's own narrative; no one can so appreciate the constitution and workings of the Roman Republic, as the pupil who reads Cicero's *Orations* or *Letters*; no one can so appreciate the one dominant principle of all Roman civilization—the consciousness of imperial destiny—as he who comes face to face with that sentiment in the more inspiring passages of the *Aeneid*. These are merely examples of the almost infinite suggestiveness of Latin study along historical lines,—not that the study of Latin can or should replace a formal study of Roman history, but it can and should be used to supplement and illuminate it.

I shall not venture to dwell upon the specifically literary training which comes to every mind of ordinary endowment by contact with the masterpieces of Latin writing usually read in our secondary schools; but I shall assume that such influences are exerted by the study, and that they will be regarded as legitimate and valuable ends of public education.

Assuming that the purposes of Latin study in the secondary school are those already indicated, *viz.*, training in English, the better comprehension of the history of Roman thought and institutions, the quickening of the higher literary sense, we shall easily draw certain conclusions as to the fundamental principles of Latin teaching. I have no special scheme to advocate, but wish simply to call attention to one or two important particulars, in which it seems to me there is often neglect of duty on the part of teachers—frequently to the great and, under the circumstances, deserved discredit of Latin as an educational influence.

To begin with, if Latin is to be a means of training in English, the form of the English translation becomes a matter of the first importance. It is not enough for the pupil to grasp the idea, and then to render it in a mongrel idiom half Latin and half English. From the very outset of Latin study the standard should be set high, and no translation accepted which will not stand the severest test as to the orthodoxy of its English. It

should not merely be idiomatic ; it should possess the merits and even the graces of style. Wherever a rendering is unnatural and smacks of the original, a halt should be called, and improvement demanded. I believe I am not extreme when I insist that no translation should ever be accepted which would not, when written out, be accepted as good "copy" for a published translation of the author in whom it occurs. If the pupil is not capable of this, it must be either because he does not understand the passage to be rendered, or else because he cannot express in English a thought which his mind clearly apprehends. Either of these difficulties, if it exist, admits of remedy by judicious instruction. Such instruction may be slow,—both at the outset and often afterwards,—for it involves frequent discussion as to the choice of words and sentence structure ; but precisely herein lies the advantage of the study. I am well aware of the pressure for time, and can appreciate the temptation of the teacher to accept any rendering of a passage, however un-English, provided it indicates that the pupil apprehends the thought. But I insist that there is no falser economy than a surrender under such circumstances. Compromises of this sort not only do not save time in the long run, but they ignore the very principle and purpose of Latin study, and ought to make that study stand in even less respect among the general public than it actually does to-day.

Yet I am convinced that the habit of ignoring the form of translation, provided the pupil gets the sense, is practically epidemic. More than this, the custom is even defended. I know of teachers who soberly maintain their preference for a perfectly literal translation on the ground that such a rendering facilitates the teaching of Latin syntax. This attitude, I think, gives us the key to the prevailing methods of translation from Latin into English. Grammatical knowledge is often made the end of Latin study instead of a means. Grammar is undoubtedly indispensable to the reading of Latin authors ; but is it not a fact that many teachers stop at this point of the subject, and rest content, if their pupils can dispose successfully of the ablatives and genitives, the subjunctives and infinitives ? Is not "construction" made the culmination of the study, and the text used as though it were but a convenient lay-figure upon which to drape in imposing folds the robe of grammar and syntax ? I am convinced that there are many teachers whose attitude and practice are not misrepresented

by this comparison. My own view is that in reading an author the amount of grammatical catechizing should be reduced to a minimum; let only so much be demanded as is absolutely necessary to the proper understanding of the text. Let all the effort be directed to the most discriminating interpretation of the passage in hand as language and literature. Let the study be an ethical and spiritual one; let the pupil feel when he approaches it that he is to receive each day some fresh revelation of the nature of mind and its workings. As to formal drill in syntax, let that be separated from the reading of texts. I know no better plan than that advocated by Mr. Collar, *viz.*, to teach grammar through the medium of Latin writing. No more rational way than this can be suggested,—and, I believe, no more effective one.

I shall venture to mention one other cause (beside grammar-worship) which seems to me responsible for much of the prevalent carelessness in the matter of translation. This cause is a misconception of what is meant by "reading at sight." Real reading at sight is exactly what its name implies. It is the reading *without translation* of what the pupil can easily and directly apprehend as a result of his present knowledge of the language. For this purpose only the very simplest Latin can ever be used in the secondary school. The pupil who has already learned to prepare his daily translation in Cicero with some facility, is no more than ready to attempt to read at sight the simplest sentences of Eutropius or *Viri Romae*. Such an exercise, consisting primarily of an intelligent oral reading of the Latin, is a most valuable help in cultivating a feeling for Latin form and style, and should be practiced wherever time allows. But the habit, which has become prevalent among us, of endeavoring to gallop over large amounts of Latin which the pupil cannot readily apprehend, not only possesses no advantages,—it is positively demoralizing. The only way to learn to read Latin at sight is to learn to read it first by the slower processes of carefully prepared translation, and patiently to await the time when the mind can apprehend simple Latin with ease. It will be impossible to hasten the advent of this capacity by attempting to force matters. It will come all the sooner by moving slowly at the outset and for a long time afterwards.

It must be confessed that those colleges which prescribe and enforce translation at sight as an admission test, are partially

responsible for much of the misdirected energy in the way of "reading at sight" in the schools. While nominally assuming to require only "an ability to translate at sight passages of average difficulty," the colleges in reality often set passages to which only an expert could fairly do justice. It is this practice, I believe, which has stimulated the schools to attempt the reading at sight of much more difficult Latin than can be fairly mastered without serious and protracted study. The result in many cases is that valuable time is wasted in striving, by rapid superficial reading of large amounts, to attain a command of the language which can come only as the result of a continued application of minuter methods of study.

I subjoin the following as a specimen of the reckless style of translation which seems to me is largely attributable to such methods as I have just been criticizing. It was presented at Cornell University in September, 1892, by a graduate of a secondary school who was the applicant for a freshman scholarship. As these scholarships are assigned after a rigid competitive examination, at which only the better equipped students are accustomed to apply, it will be seen that the applicant was one who had been led to believe in the efficiency of his previous preparation. As a convenience I append the Latin which was set for translation,—a simple extract from Ovid's *Metamorphoses*:

At Phaëthon, rutilos flamma populante capillos,
 Volvitur in praeceps, longoque per aëra tractu
 Fertur, ut interdum de caelo stella sereno
 Etsi non cecidit, potuit cecidisse videri.
 Quem procul a patria diverso maximus orbe
 Excipit Eridanus, fumantiaque abluit ora.
 Nāides Hesperiae trifida fumantia flamma
 Corpora dant tumulo, signant quoque carmine saxum :
 HIC-SITUS-EST-PHAETHON-CURRUS-AURIGA-PATERNI
 QUEM-SI-NON-TENUIT-MAGNIS-TAMEN-EXCIDIT-AUSIS
 Nam pater obductos, luctu miserabilis aegro,
 Condiderat vultus ; et, si modo credimus, unum
 Isse diem sine sole ferunt. Incendia lumen
 Praebabant, aliquisque malo fuit usus in illo.

The translation follows :

"But Phaëthon, the soft beards being filled with flame, is

turned headlong and far through the ethereal waste is borne, just as the stars in the peaceful heavens, although he yielded not, it was able to be seen that he should have yielded. Whom formerly the great Eridanus taken out from his native land to a strange city and washed his bloody countenance. The Naiades, Hesperiaë gave the thrice faithful bloody bodies to the mound, and then they marked the rock in blood. Here is the site of the Phaëthon course the charioteer of the paternal land whom if he could not hold greatly nevertheless—he was cut to pieces—he dared.

For the father being led away miserable in aged desire, he had composed his countenance, and if we believe in the manner, they bear one day without the sun! The burning light is fed and other use was in that bad."

Would any pupil who had not often been encouraged to ambitious attacks upon impregnable linguistic strongholds, have ever been guilty of anything so atrocious as the foregoing? Any one who had read with fidelity the Latin authors commonly studied in preparation for college, ought certainly to have been able to render with credit the passage above given. But reckless excursions in the field of translating at sight will unfit any mind for exact habits of thought, and are likely to work just such mental havoc as seen above.

As regards the subject-matter of authors read, I believe our secondary schools quite generally make one very serious omission. They fail to emphasize the importance of grasping the narrative or argument of a writer in its continuity. The tendency is to read simply from day to day. Too little effort—often none at all—is made to bring successive lessons into relation, to show the bearings and connection of the different parts of a narrative or speech. How few pupils, after reading a book of Caesar or an oration of Cicero, have in their minds any clear and consistent picture of the course of thought, the line of argument, its strength and defects, or apprehend the real drift of the piece as a whole! Is not the piece commonly made a succession of "takes," the order of which might be varied *ad libitum*, so far as concerns interference with any systematic endeavor to show their organic connection? And is not the impression left upon the minds of pupils often one of utter vagueness as to what it is all about? I believe the alleged defect to be very general, and if

it is, it surely ought to be remedied at once. I know of no surer way to kill all literary sense and encourage mechanical formalism, than the exclusive employment of the analytic method of study, without ever a thought of synthesis,—always taking apart,—never putting together. Such a process is *destructive* in more senses than one. Let us not abandon analysis in our study of Latin, but let us combine with it a larger use of synthetic methods. After a pupil has translated a book of Caesar or an oration of Cicero, let him under the teacher's guidance go carefully over the whole; let him build up thought on thought, until he comes to see and feel the piece as a unit. I believe that reform in this particular is widely needed in the schools where Latin is taught. The ancient languages are held to be instruments of culture; and so they are when rightly used. But culture implies the apprehension of things in their relations. It is not merely a familiarity with "the best that has been thought and said." If it were, the *Dictionary of Familiar Quotations* would be the place to find it. Let us bear this in mind as we teach the Latin classics; let us remember that they are not merely languages, but—what is much more—literature.

The friends of Latin should soberly consider that the study is now on trial as never before. The attacks against it are not merely reactionary, nor do they proceed alone from the prejudiced or the ill-informed. They represent in many instances the deliberate convictions of serious students of the problems of education,—convictions which it is idle to ignore. If the study is to retain its position as a permanent part of the school curriculum, it can do so only by the positive results it shows itself capable of producing. Whether these shall commend themselves to educators will depend, not upon any theoretical claims or advantages of the study, but upon wise and efficient methods of instruction.

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THE PROBLEM OF PROFESSIONAL TRAINING.

[RECENT MOVEMENTS IN GERMANY AND ENGLAND.]

§ 1. The occasion of the publication of a new educational journal suggests to our mind the inquiry: "What are the problems which *first of all* need attention from those who have at heart the cause of educational reform?"

The field is vast. We may begin with a problem of organization, with the primary question of school attendance involving the rival claims of state and family, and from this pass through the whole field of questions involved in administration, till we conclude that of university government. Then we may enter the school walls; we have many unsolved problems relating to the individual child, challenging our estimate of psychology as an aid to education; we have to face social problems of the deepest moment involving the moral and spiritual health of the corporate society of school; finally we beat out our brains with discussions upon every branch of school instruction.

All this ceaseless activity means unrest, and the desire for reform; but how much of it is progress? I have no desire to lay down pessimistic views, least of all before readers who belong to a country in which enthusiasm for education seems to be unbounded; but I wish to urge that progress needs to be ordered, and energy needs to be disciplined and united, if the full effects are to be secured. Consider the enormous waste of zeal and devotion in our profession, which the pedagogic literature of the last hundred years exhibits! Think of the hundreds of capable, earnest teachers who, single-handed, have thought out their plan for saving the souls and minds of our children, and have striven in darkness to bring their plans to the light. I have for some time been inquiring into the history of modern language instruction, and the evidence which this research affords—of wild hope, of boundless energy, of eternal disappointment—impresses my attention most forcibly with the need for some *system* in our efforts to promote the common cause. Here and there a Pestalozzi or a Fröbel may cast his bread upon the waters, and find it after many days, but how many noble hearts like theirs have—all unknown to us—been broken! I venture to say that every reader of these lines, who has been for a few years engaged in teaching, will re-

call a dozen names of capable teachers who are full of new ideas, and determined to realize them, but who never produced work of permanent value. Their seed is thrown upon the wayside, and, if a grain or two by chance bears fruit, the scanty harvest will be left to perish.

It may indeed be argued, that progress is necessarily slow in education as in every other field of reform; that many heroes unknown to fame must die upon the field before the battle is won. True, but I venture to assert that in our calling this sacrifice of life is out of all proportion to its results, and that by foresight and by judgment it may *in part* be saved. Besides the common causes which stand to oppose all reform (prejudice, and lack of material means), I seem to perceive two special hindrances in the road. First, the teacher is *fettered*; his wings are clipped by state regulations, by committees, by parents. These forces tend to destroy his self-activity, and instead of wisely limiting their control to the essential minimum, they tend to turn him into a machine, or a flatterer and bread winner. Secondly, the teacher is *untrained*. As a youth, he comes to his task full of high ideals and of intellectual force, realizing the nobility of his calling, and willing to sacrifice much in its performance; but *ignorant* of what others have done and are doing, he beats the air in hopeless war, and conquers foes whom others have conquered a hundred times before. Those of my readers who have had any long experience will know how very true this record has been in their own career. Hence I hold that, if we value economy, we must deal first with the two problems here presented. The first we may describe as the problem of School Control; the second, the problem of Professional Training. Upon the second I propose to offer some comment, especially in view of recent movements relating to the training of secondary teachers in England and Germany.

§ 2. It will be observed that I have here offered an argument for training merely with a view to the economy of energy; the more usual arguments need not be enumerated, for they are practically accepted by public opinion, and the question now under debate is rather the *form* that secondary training shall take.

Before discussing this, however, let me again emphasize the fact that it is professional training which energetic teachers require, if they are really to effect the reform which they have at heart. It is often said that the poor teacher needs training, in order to make

him somewhat better, but that the really capable man, "the born teacher," can do without it. True, I should reply, he may do without it, so far as his own fortunes are concerned; his common sense and his activity will secure him an honorable place in his profession, but with this he will not be content. He is a man of ideas, and will be constantly seeking to develop his methods; he will seek to impart his ideas to others. The growth of the educational press is an evidence of the teacher's desire not only to instruct his pupils, but his colleagues; to submit his discoveries, his judgment, to their criticism. Your successful teacher is almost always a missionary. For him, then, training means a discipline which shall keep his isolated efforts from running astray; a knowledge of the whole field of education which shall tell him what others have done all the world over; a set of principles by which he can check his plans, and can fit them into their place in the whole pedagogic scheme. Just as the chemist, before he enters upon an investigation, will look everywhere around, and learn what has been done before, so the trained teacher, before venturing to work out his own ideas, will learn of others, and will not submit his own opinion, as a contribution to progress, until he has a better basis than his own experience.

§ 3. This argument, which especially hits the case of the men who suppose themselves least in need of training, may also be adopted to indicate an important element in the organization of a training course. It demands that training shall be scientific, conducted by way of investigation as well as by precept. The pedagogic student requires, first of all, to obtain inspiration and knowledge in the usual disciplinary studies related to his calling, but he also requires to be trained as an investigator; to be put within reach not only of the methods of his own professor, but of the general course of thought in the whole realm of education. This spirit of investigation is surely the saving quality in German higher teaching, which has induced so many hundreds of Americans to frequent the universities of Germany in preference to those of England where it is conspicuously absent.

The contrast between the two countries in educational method is, indeed, forcibly illustrated by the agitation now proceeding on the problem of higher training. I venture to assert that the industry and zeal of the English teacher is no whit behind that of his German confrère, that in natural capacity for dealing with

children he surpasses the German, but in comparing the attitude of the two in relation to this problem one must place England at least half a-century behind. Space will not permit me to support this opinion in any detail, nor is it necessary, since an account of what is being done in the two countries has been recently reported in *The Pedagogical Seminary*.*

§ 4. In Germany the conservative attitude of head masters and of state governments has gradually been influenced by the example of primary training, and by the acknowledged success of the few pedagogic seminaries conducted in universities, such as Halle, Jena, and Giessen; the unsatisfactory *Probejahr* has been set on one side, and in Prussia a systematic course of gymnasial training, of a practical and theoretical nature, has been imposed upon all candidates for posts in secondary schools. It is true that this particular form of training does not satisfy the reformers, and in a course of lectures just published † Professor Rein of Jena, has exposed the evils that are likely to ensue from the scheme now in operation; but whatever may be its defects, their *Gymnasial-Seminar* definitely commits the scholastic profession in Germany of every grade to a systematic period of professional training extending over two years. The second year still retains the old name of *Probejahr*, since the Prussian government is conservative enough to retain the shell of the old organization; but it is obvious that a *Probejahr* following *after* a *Seminarjahr* will be a wholly different thing from the old *Probejahr*, which had no such foundation; a university scholar, who has had *one* year of training, will know how to make good use of a second, even if he is largely left to himself.

As yet, little has been put into print to show how this new plan for training is likely to operate, but from the few reports already published there is every sign that the German *Gymnasium* will be stirred to new pedagogic life by the obligation to impart thorough training to pedagogic students. A report from Dr. Moll of Stettin ‡ will probably interest many head masters in

*December, 1891. Art. III, Higher Pedagogical Seminaries in Germany; and Art. IV, The Training of Teachers in England.

† *Am Ende der Schulreform?* (M 1.50. Langensalza: Beyer u. Söhne, 1893.) It contains a usual bibliography on the whole question of School Reform and of Training.

‡ *Unser zweites Seminarjahr*;—besonderer Abdruck der Zeitschrift für das Gymnasialwesen. (Berlin: Weidmann.)

America ; I have myself greatly profited by being permitted to watch the work of the Hofrath Dr. Richter's *Seminar* in Jena, which has been established by the Government of Saxe-Weimar* on the model of the Prussian plan. This last is all the more interesting, because the Thüringen government have recognized what is the chief defect of the Prussian scheme and have been able to remedy it. In Prussia the *Seminar* students are entirely trained in the *Gymnasium*, apart from the university, and apart from the philosophic studies which must form the basis of a sound pedagogic system ; theory is separated from practice. At Jena, however, the university, with its professorship of pedagogics and its practising school,† was already on the ground, and it was therefore a simple matter to arrange that students intending to teach should attend both the *Gymnasial Seminar* and the University *Seminar* conducted by Professor Rein, acquiring in the former the special knowledge of the art as practised in the *Gymnasium* (*Gymnasial Pädagogik*), and in the latter, the general foundation of principle and practice in the whole field of education (*Allgemeine Pädagogik*). And, if their philosophic studies have not been completed in earlier years, they have also the opportunity of attending lectures in ethics and psychology, with the University professor of philosophy.‡

§ 5. Turning now to England, we have, in the recent Conference of Head Masters, a striking illustration of the world-wide difference both in opinion and method between the two countries. This Conference is attended only by the head masters of a hundred or so of the most select schools ; schools, many of them of great reputation and of very illustrious tradition. The subject has been debated by the Conference for more than fifteen years, and yet nothing even at this day has been done beyond a resolution passed at the last gathering, as follows :

That it is desirable that head masters should support the Teachers' Training Syndicate, by giving preference in their appointments to masterships to such applicants as have passed, or are willing to pass, the examination in the theoretical knowledge of education.||

* *Das Gymnasialseminar in Jena*, (in the *Gymnasium Jahresbericht* for 1891 : Jena, G. Neuenhahn.)

† See Dr. Burnham's Report in *The Pedagogical Seminary*, pp. 397-400.

‡ I have given a fuller account of the work in Jena, with recommendations for its adaptation to the special needs, as I think, of England, in the *London Journal of Education*, Dec. 1892, Feb., March, 1893.

|| *London Journal of Education*, Jan., 1893.

The mover of the resolution, the Rev. the Hon. E. Lyttleton, maintained his resolution partly on the ground that the examination "did not involve any large expenditure of time or money"! Foreigners, unfamiliar with the English educational world, find it difficult to realize the implicit faith which is placed in simultaneous paper examinations, in every English school and university. The Conference seemed seriously to suppose that something which might be called training can be acquired by getting up the contents of two or three text-books, by reproducing them on paper in answer to a few simple questions, and by accepting a certificate in acknowledgement of the transaction! The saddest part in the story is played by the university which establishes such an examination, and which is content to have fulfilled its duty to pedagogics in this fashion.* Fortunately, there are other tendencies in English education of a more hopeful kind, and women teachers are getting to work to solve the problem of higher training more earnestly.† And however backward the great public schools may be in taking up such a reform, there are many signs that it will be pressed on in other quarters. The agitation which for some years has concerned itself with commercial and with technical instruction is now striking deeper, and a sound public opinion seems to be forming:—that the whole field of secondary school administration needs to be dealt with by the state. The present energetic Minister of Education under the new Liberal government, has a bill for this purpose in hand, and although actual legislation will probably be long delayed, the stimulus has been created, and the middle classes of England are slowly coming to the conviction that the education of their children is worthy of their serious consideration. This reform will certainly be accompanied by a demand that the teacher should possess professional skill.

§ 6. We see, therefore, in England, the beginning of a movement which will lead to secondary training, although little can be gained from English experience in this direction; in Germany we see a new and most important experiment now in progress. The time, as it seems to me, is ripe for a full and dispassionate consideration of the principles involved in our problem. No

* See Mrs. Oscar Browning's preface to Felkin's translation of Herbart's *Allgemeine Pädagogik*. (London and New York, 1892.)

† See *The Pedagogical Seminary*, as above, p. 415.

doubt the conditions of every country and of every grade of school are different, but certain principles are common to all, although the particular methods in which these are to be carried out may vary. I venture, in the following paragraphs, to lay down certain propositions for consideration.

A. The Administration of Pedagogic Training.

1. Every authority which establishes a school is bound, as a part of its duty, to see to it that the staff of teachers are professionally trained. Just as public authorities require evidence of efficiency from members of other professions, from medical men and from lawyers, so it is their right and their duty to require the same from all persons who ask permission to take charge of the education of children, whether in private or in public schools. In other words, the responsibility for training lies, finally, at the door of the executive, local and imperial.

2. Since, in matters of education, public authorities look to the profession for guidance in the administration of school law, the *immediate* responsibility lies upon superintendents, upon head masters and presidents, to whom laymen look for guidance.

3. The responsibility is also shared by the universities, as being the center for all higher study. The honor and reputation of a university depends upon its recognition of all scholarly studies, of all departments of research within its curriculum.*

In the case of teachers, this responsibility is particularly great because secondary teachers at present receive their academic training in college and university, and by excluding pedagogics from the programme of studies, the university allows by implication that the pursuit is unnecessary.

B. The Nature of Training.

4. Broadly considered, the period of training may be said to comprise the whole period from the close of boyhood to the time when the teacher is fully qualified to take his place on a staff. But this period includes a term of pure scholarly study, which, for our present purpose, may be disregarded. This only may be noted, that the intending teacher should not only obtain a good general education, such as is represented by a B.A. degree, but should possess an advanced acquaintance with some one branch of study. And he should possess this acquaintance, not primari-

* Compare *Rein*, as above, p. 64.

ly because he will teach this branch hereafter, but because his investigation into this branch will make him a scholar, and will give him *the capacity hereafter to study by himself many other branches of instruction* which his work as a teacher will bring within his range.

5. This period of scholarly study should be concluded before professional training is entered upon.*

6. Professional training itself may be divided as follows :

(i) Study of psychology and ethics. This may very well form a part of the general education described above, but if it has not formed a part of the university study, it must be taken with professional training.

(ii) Study of pedagogics proper, including the philosophy of education, the organization of education, and the technique of instruction, (for advanced students, the history of education as a formal study).

(iii) Acquaintance with children and practice in teaching them. The one indispensable condition for the teacher is that he shall *know the child*.

(iv) Special study and practice in the special type of school to which the student will hereafter devote himself. We have, thus, primary school pedagogics, kindergarten pedagogics, high school pedagogics, home tutor pedagogics (called by the Germans *Haus-Pädagogik*), and the like. To this add the special requirements of schools for the blind, schools for the deaf and dumb, reformatories, etc.

* Reformers in Germany are urging the separation of general from professional training in normal colleges. See *Rein* as above, pp. 57, 58. While we thus make a clear distinction, in theory and in practice, between higher general education and professional training, it must be allowed that when, as a matter of fact, certain necessary elements of a teacher's general education have been neglected, they must in some way or other be supplied. Thus, Miss Hughes in her Ladies' Training College at Cambridge, Eng. pays special attention to elocution and to drawing ; and with justice, for without facility in these two arts of expression, what teacher can hope to influence the minds of children ? In the same way, we ought to require every secondary teacher to have done practical work in at least one branch of science, and to be familiar with one foreign language. And we ought to take it as a matter of course that the student in training has become familiar with the history and literature of his own country. These, however, are all extra matters, and, however necessary it may be for a training seminary to try and supply such defects, they must be rigorously kept apart from the proper work of pedagogics.

C. The Necessary Equipment for Training.

7. These different departments of training may be provided for in various ways, but it must be insisted that *theory and practice go hand in hand*. Academic lectures on pedagogics are of very little use to a student, if he does not at the same time witness and share in their application. The principle of modern study, that every science and art must be investigated in the laboratory as well as in the lecture room, should be extended also to pedagogics. And the laboratory of the pedagogic professor is his practising school.

8. Hence, a university practising school (small or large), is the necessary equipment to an efficient pedagogic course.*

9. The university, then, can and should provide for all the wants of a pedagogic student except those of (iv), which can only be met by actual association with the special type of school. This last requirement constitutes the case for school seminaries, on the Prussian plan.

10. An ideal training scheme, therefore, might be sketched as follows, assuming that the university is situated in a city, within walking distance of a number of schools: The professor of pedagogics has a small practising school, which is taught and managed by his assistants, who have the same status as demonstrators in laboratories. The students after completing their university studies enter the *Seminar*, and at the same time or afterwards attach themselves to one of the secondary schools of the neighborhood, high school, kindergarten or the like.

11. Besides undertaking this professional duty of training teachers, the university pedagogics conducts research, and so assists the progress of reform both in the science and art of education.

12. The university also offers a further advantage that it brings pedagogics into association with medicine and with theology, and with students of social science, as well as with philosophy, the servant as well as the mistress of all the sciences. The clergyman and the doctor and the statesman can help the teacher, and in turn must learn from him.

* NOTE.—In a university where *only* special research work is undertaken and from which ordinary students are excluded, these propositions would not apply. I am contemplating only the wants of the ordinary secondary teacher.

13. The above propositions apply generally to all grades of teachers, for the present distinctions between one and another are social and not pedagogic. The only difference between one and another is that for the so-called lower grades (primary and kindergarten), the period of general education is usually shorter and hence the student is not sufficiently scholarly to be admitted to a university career ; this justifies the existence of normal and Fröbel institutions. But in these institutions the same rule ought to hold good (No. 5 above), general education to be completed and closed before the period of professional training is commenced.

§ 7. Each of these paragraphs deserves a chapter to itself ; but, as they stand, their meaning will be clear, and I throw them out in this form for the consideration of secondary teachers, who *already accept* the fundamental principle, that the first plank in educational reform is the professional equipment of the teacher. To those who accept this principle in general terms, but who are doubtful as to the mode in which it may be carried out, I would say :—Study the results of secondary training in the universities and schools of Germany, since this is the only country where experience has been gathered. Doubtless on new soil the German methods will not find acceptance without change. In learning from Germany we can hope to profit by her experience and to improve upon it. We cannot, however, shut our eyes to the definite conclusion to which Prussia and most of the other German states have arrived : that practical and theoretical training is indispensable to every class of teacher ; and that the state is to insist upon the requirement being fulfilled. In England, the same provision will come, however long the forces of opposition may succeed in delaying reform.

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THE SUPERVISORY WORK OF PRINCIPALS.

The principal of a high school is the head, or ought to be, of the institution. He is the director of affairs, the chief bearer of responsibility, the "captain of industry," hence, of necessity, his work must be supervisory. If the principal is strong, the school is a power in the community and an absolute necessity; if he is weak, the citizens feel that they ought not to be taxed to support "gilt edged" education. An able, efficient principal is the best argument for secondary education, paid for by the State. He will have a school that may be compared to a silent force of nature, or a healthy organ of the body, performing its functions perfectly without obtruding itself upon the attention.

To secure the best results from supervision, a principal must, first of all, look well to himself. His habits must be exemplary, uniform and regular, his character clear, his health perfect. A dyspeptic is out of place in the school house. One suffering from indigestion is in poor condition to undertake to manage a large number of young people. Personal appearance is no small item in the make-up of a successful supervisor. Choosing the happy mean between the dude and the sloven, he offends not by either extreme. Kindly disposition is another element of success. Dealing with human nature, one disposed to find fault can always be supplied with the raw material, and if it is not to his mind, he can readily work it over into the finished product. On the other hand, if a man is disposed to be an optimist, he can just as readily find much in the "image divine" to admire. A man generally finds that for which he diligently seeks, and quite often he hasn't far to go.

No person unacquainted with the philosophy of education is fitted to do supervisory work. He must have a fair knowledge of the growth and activities of child mind and of the tendencies and limitations of human nature, else he cannot direct the work of instruction. A successful supervising principal must know the secret of success of eminent educators. He must be able to discriminate between the good and the worthless in methods of teaching and in systems of pedagogy. Moreover he must be alive, up with the times, and the possessor of keen powers of observation. The experience of mankind is valuable, civilization

is advancing, the world moves, new and valuable changes are making. What is the relation of these facts to a principal? "Fossil" is not a good name for him to bear. To avoid it he must grow, he must be in touch with these things, he must know what is going on in the educational world. This necessitates his presence at educational conventions, it compels him to read much and think more. He must discriminate as to his reading, he cannot read everything, and his time is—oh, so precious! He should, of course, read professional books, and he finds the periodicals, strong in book reviews and devoted to the discussion of subjects along the lines of his own work, suggestive and helpful.

A principal of a large school should do some teaching, that he may be familiar with the work of instruction. This experience enables him to test the value of his own theories and methods, and prepares him to sympathize with his teachers and to assist them in their work as occasion demands.

Class visitation is an important part of the work of supervision. The atmosphere of a room may be immediately changed by the entrance of the principal. If his bearing is dignified, kindly, quiet; if he presents the attractive, rather than the repellent pole of his magnetic character, the atmosphere he brings with him will harmonize with that already in the room if the teacher is strong and the class, with gladsome interest, are working to the best advantage. If something is wrong, he will feel it, the teacher will feel it, and the class will very soon show that they feel it. The teacher and class will be pleasantly or otherwise affected by the principal's mood and his manner of showing it. If he is irritable, he will see himself reflected on all sides. He should enter the room quietly and pleasantly, with his eyes and ears wide open, never interrupt the work of the class or of the teacher, never lecture, never scold. Happy is that principal who, upon entering a class room, finds all, teacher and class, so interested and absorbed in their work as to scarcely realize his presence. If he should happen to know a little more about the subject under discussion than they appear to know, he should never yield to the temptation of obtruding for the purpose of showing his superior knowledge. The keen sighted teacher will read his face and give him sufficient opportunity to be helpful. If so, he should be brief and to the point. Should he see faults in the

teacher and consequently errors in the instruction, they must be corrected, but not by him in the hearing of the class. Teachers must be sustained. There are teachers and there are recitation hearers, there are real instructors in the school room and there are persons who grind out a weary existence in that sacred place, and who are never properly designated; they should be termed "hangers-on." To promote the work of the one class, and to neutralize the work of the other; to encourage the teacher, and to get rid of the recitation hearer, demand the most exquisite tact on the part of the principal. It is well for the teacher, it is also well for the principal frequently to define the word *tact*, to take due notice thereof, and to govern himself accordingly.

Another thing that demands tact, in the character of the principal, is to criticise in the proper manner, at the right time, and in a suitable place. This requires a due appreciation of the fitness of things. There are two kinds of criticism, commendatory and adverse. The wise principal will make good use of both. He may commend in the presence of the class by emphasizing a good point made by the teacher, or a principle she may have led the class to see and use. Some criticisms are to be made, for the benefit of all the teachers, in a general way, in the faculty meeting. Here the principal will always find a source of power. The full and free discussions, always conducted with tact, always impersonal, will generally prove to be an inspiration to the teachers and of great value in their work. Before criticising adversely, either in faculty meeting or privately, a principal should be sure of his ground. If in faculty meeting, his criticism should come in the form of a question to be discussed; if in private, it should take the form of a suggestion, kindly made, never in a captious spirit. Wasps and dogs are very much out of place in the school house. A suggestion gives a teacher an opportunity of defence, and it may be, of showing the principal that he doesn't know it all. He may have some knowledge of the subject and be master of pedagogic principles, his teacher may be master of both.

The going about from class to class does not comprise all there is of supervisory work in a large high school. Indeed it is a very small part of it. Perhaps the most important feature of such work may be denominated "personal contact," especially with the pupil. In such a school there are all kinds of pupils. Some require admonition, advice, caution, others need words of

encouragement, still others are put upon their mettle by a little inspiration. The school is for the scholar. The principal is, or should be, the leading, moving spirit. In no way can he so well perform his functions as by individual, hand-to-hand, face-to-face contact. Not so much in matters of discipline, but in friendly talks with his boys and girls as to their life work, their hopes, their fears, their anticipations. A kindly interest, manifested by sensible words of encouragement, not only wins a student's esteem, but is often a means of salvation. Many pupils in the high school have vague ideas of their own future; some have never given the subject a thought. Perhaps this is well, and as it should be, while they are in the grammar school, and until they are well along in their high school course; but students must find themselves sometime, so to speak, *i. e.*, discover their "natural bent;" and after their field of vision of a general education has been somewhat broadened, a few timely suggestions and helpful hints would be thankfully received, and might be of inestimable value in their future career. Such questions as: "After graduation—what?" "After college—what?" judiciously put, never do any harm if the student respects the questioner.

The principal can be helpful by enquiring of the students about their current work, their studies, their progress. If there be failures, he should ascertain from them the cause, get at their reasons for "hating" this or that subject, why it is that they like one teacher and dislike another. Such reasons may prove to be revelations to the principal, and, if he is wise, he will still further investigate and make his discoveries useful.

Again, the principal is, or ought to be, the most practical teacher of ethics. Students take things differently from him than from others. He can show them how to avoid storing up future regrets, how to make their fleeting time most valuable, and how to economize energy, how to acquire good rather than bad habits, in short, how best to observe and perform their duties toward themselves. Many men and women look back with inexpressible gratitude to the friend who saved them by helping them to start right; while others, alas, find themselves at the bottom of the ladder of success in life, with no capital with which to rise or begin anew, which is due, largely, to the neglect of duty or to the want of wisdom on the part of the principal. Is it not true that the real remuneration of a faithful supervisor of students' work, is his

feeling of gratification upon being informed of the successes of his former students?)

(The general business of the school naturally forms a part of the supervisory work of a principal. Some things can be delegated to assistants, but many details demand his personal attention. The comfort and health of teachers and students must be his constant study and care. The temperature, ventilation, and light of the rooms; the work of the janitor, the necessary supplies, provisions for examinations, the proper adjustment of syllabuses, of daily and other programs, the reports to State and local authorities, financial matters and, indeed, everything that requires forethought, or, rather, the foresight and attention of one mind, must be under the careful, watchful, quick eye of the principal. It is said that "the unexpected always happens," but it will not be so to any considerable extent under the supervision of a wide awake principal. He must constantly be on the alert. He never loses sight of the truth of the old saying, "an ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure." It is well to have an understood system of fire drill, by which, upon a given signal, the students shall quickly leave the building. Though a fire escape attached to the building be never used, the feeling of safety its existence tends to give is worth incomparably more than its cost. Students occasionally faint or become suddenly ill. It is always wise to be prepared for emergencies, and when matters become somewhat complicated, the principal must be like the efficient general on the battle field, able to take in the situation at a glance and to act coolly, promptly, discreetly.

Parents demand and should receive a large amount of a principal's attention. Cases of discipline are to be settled occasionally; more times, misconduct on the part of pupils may be prevented or avoided by a friendly understanding with fathers or mothers. The principal is expected to advise as to suitable courses of study, parents are desirous of giving their children the best education under the circumstances, but are unable to look ahead and plan without help. Here is a field of work in which the judicious principal can render excellent service, both to his school and to the community. After courses of study have been decided upon and pupils are at work in school, the principal is the proper one to consult as to the character of colleges, requirements for entrance, etc., etc. It is well for students to start right. A mistake

at the beginning of a young person's career may mean an irretrievable injury, if not the ruin of his education.

On the whole, it seems that the supervisory work of a principal of a large high school, if properly and faithfully done, is quite necessary to the success of the institution.

J. G. Allen.

Rochester Free Academy.

THE BINGHAMTON CONFERENCE.

A meeting of principals of secondary schools was held at Binghamton, 24 and 25 February, to confer upon work in English. The purpose was to listen to collegiate complaints, to learn the current methods of the best schools represented at the conference, carefully to examine the submitted specimens of literary expression, and to devise means for remedying apparent defects. Friday evening was given to a round-table consideration of the abnormalities of Freshman English.

Professor J. M. Hart, of the English department of Cornell University: Though I speak primarily for Cornell, I know that this lack of adequate expression is a serious matter for all. Every parent may justly demand that his child, graduating from an academy at the age of eighteen and one-half years, shall possess ability to express his thoughts in words; that these shall be selected with regard to accepted usage, shall be correctly spelled and syntactically arranged into complete sentences; and that these statements shall be properly grouped in a whole-souled paragraph. This is what we require. It has been charged that Cornell asks for the facility of a city reporter; but I protest against such a misconception. Our demands are fair and will sooner or later be met. Every candidate for admission to the University should be able so to express himself that an ordinary reader can take in his thought without effort.

The evil of which we complain is deep and wide-spread. One of our instructors in physics tells me that his Seniors, however precise in experimental work, are apparently unable so to relate processes and conclusions that he can ascertain the meaning. He finds himself compelled to reconstruct the psychology of every

writer. In one instance a Senior presented a thesis of fifteen hundred words in chemistry but could not, until after persistent questioning, tell what he meant by speaking of himself as "a promising young chemist." He had used the phrase in the sense of "one who promised to do his best." Nor is this wholly exceptional. Senior writers of the worst English are now, with increasing rigor, being detained for a year's course in their mother tongue.

The colleges do not expect writers. No school can impart the literary touch. It is a gift. There can, however, be acquired the simple technique whereby an academic graduate shall be able to express with his pen the thoughts of his mind. If this is not true, for what purpose do the schools exist? There can be no education without power to express. And in this statement I am sustained by the philosophical President of Cornell University.

I am aware that the teaching of English fails of complete and precise results because of contamination through daily contact with slang and bad grammar outside the class-room. Instructors in Latin and Greek have here an advantage. However dull their pupils, the language taught them remains uncorrupted. Badness of speech is in the air, and the combined effort of the school is needed to neutralize it. All school work should be English work, whether the study be Latin or geography. Wherever the subject matter is well learned the daily lessons afford the best foundation for practice in written expression.

Cornell feels obliged to require of schools not under the Regents substantially the same preparatory reading as that called for by the New England Association of Colleges. The subject matter should be fully interpreted by the teacher and thoroughly discussed with the pupil. Then the student will be prepared to write his own views. It is preposterous to compel a student to write on a topic concerning which the teacher has awakened or encouraged no ideas. To interpret is the teacher's business. Our schools teach "humanity," and the reading prescribed has, or should have, a humanizing tendency. As long as any production is intensely human, so long is it a classic. Too much attention is given to mere dexterity of intellect. This faculty should undoubtedly be sharpened, but the sympathies should correspondingly be broadened. I do not underrate the value of Latin and Greek. Their glory will not fade. Yet the early study of

these languages is a continuous grind. It is not literary training. Not one pupil in a thousand emerges from the daily penumbra of mood and tense. In reading good English the pupil walks in light, surrounded by inviting pleasures. Here sympathy appeals to sympathy, and life to life. We have taught the child to solve problems until existence itself seems to him one endless conundrum. Here, in our English prose and poetry, is a world of mighty souls that utter truths intelligible to young and old alike. Daily is the initiation of our pupils into this commonwealth of the spirit becoming more and more a necessity. A course of thoughtful reading under competent guidance will clear away many obstacles over which we now stumble. If we can bring these material lives into contact with this life spiritual, original thought will find good form. The object of English work lies here.

Professor James A. Truax, of Union University: The tests at Union are based on the supposition that secondary schools give instruction in grammar, rhetoric and some portion of English literature. We ask that candidates show grammatical correctness and ability to express their thoughts in idiomatic English. We receive false syntax, almost no punctuation, and no paragraphs depending on coherence of thought. Applicants for admission may have the philosophy of rhetoric, they certainly have not the art. There is need of more individual training in modes of expression. Colleges themselves are largely responsible for the evil. Only recently have they sent out competent teachers of our language. Much may be expected, too, from a live public sentiment, though this is of recent and slow growth. Even among the graduates of the technical departments it has been commonly thought that a civil engineer needed not the art of expression. I think good results are obtained from extemporaneous work, not too formal, on a subject previously announced. This production should be corrected until it can be unhesitatingly placed in the hands of a compositor. With a literature as rich and varied as ours, neglect here is absurd.

Principal W. P. Thompson, Auburn High School: It is exceedingly difficult to get the average student interested in English, as science calls more and more loudly. That way money lies.

Principal D. O. Barto, Ithaca High School: The colleges are

largely responsible for Freshman English. Rigid requirements have been maintained in Latin, Greek and Mathematics; and the secondary schools prepared pupils to meet them. Until recently but slight demands have been made in English, and the schools shaped their work accordingly.

Mr. J. Russell Parsons, Jr., Director of examinations, Regents' Office, Albany: It is interesting in this connection to note the rapid increase in the number of English composition papers forwarded to our office. During the four years from 1888 to 1892 the number of papers allowed increased more than one hundred per cent. This was in spite of higher demands and more severe scrutiny. In literature the number rose from 954 to 2207; and in courses in English reading, during two years only, from 285 to 1005. The totals of all English work show that during the last four years the amount of effort indicated by Regents' papers has been doubled.

Principal C. O. Dewey, Binghamton High School: Not long since, in filling out a student's certificate for admission to Cornell, I expressly stated that the candidate's work had been unsatisfactory. He was promptly admitted to the university.

Principal Barto: Colleges should admit to their entrance examinations only those students who are recommended therefor by their teachers. If all who wish are allowed to enter, no school should be held responsible for a pupil whom it has not fully commended.

Professor Hart: I cannot promise that Cornell would hold itself bound to rule a candidate out of an examination on a principal's request; but you have a right to ask it. There should certainly be some provisional scrutiny. If we know that a candidate has run away from school, we can make his examination more searching. The test in English will consume three hours. During the first hour answers will be given to questions on the contents of one-half the books assigned for reading. The remaining time will be devoted to the preparation of three papers on topics taken from the remaining books on the list.

Of the methods of teaching English in secondary schools presented for discussion on Friday morning, space can be given for only one. Miss Myra L. Spaulding, in charge of English composition at the Binghamton High School, plans the work as follows: Each of the four grades is subdivided into sections num-

bering about thirty pupils. Every section has a weekly recitation in rhetoric. During the first year special drill is given in the use of capitals, punctuation marks, and in the correct pronunciation of troublesome words. In the second year diction and style receive due attention. The word-exercise comprises a study of terms having like forms but different uses. The third year pupils are exercised in the handling of figurative language and in correct paragraphing. The word-study is directed to the origin and determination of terms. The fourth year reviews previous lessons and adds a study of synonyms.

The written work of the first year is confined to the divers epistolary forms. Acute perception is encouraged by sending pupils to write up such matters as the show window of an art store, the best patterns of carpets, or some bonnets at the milliner's. Not more than three are sent to one spot. They are enjoined to ask for information if necessary. By this practice individual tastes soon appear, and thereafter agreeable work can readily be assigned. Not less than ten of these productions are written by each during the year. The practice of the second grade is on description and narration. Such subjects as a certain deserted house, a specified rock, or a tree, are assigned. The pupil is to take tablet and pencil with him, go round about, examine closely, determine at what point he finds the most picturesque view, and there stand and describe the object as it appears. Description of interiors is similarly made. Landscapes afford endless variety. Narrative work is confined chiefly to reproduction of interesting legends. During this year from eight to ten compositions of 200 words each are required. The writing of the third year is on argumentative and expository themes. Books of reference are named and the precise pages indicated. From six to eight essays of not less than 600 words are written by each pupil. During the fourth year the same number of articles is exacted, but the productions are of greater length and on more diversified subjects. All written work is sharply criticised. Errors are illuminated; and they must be corrected in the presence of the teacher. Face to face work secures the most lasting impressions. The pupil is made to learn that painting, whether in words or in colors, demands the eye of an artist.

Leigh R. Hunt.

Sup't of Schools, Corning, N. Y.

LETTERS TO THE EDITOR.

"ON TEACHING ENGLISH."

Editor School Review :

DEAR SIR—All lovers of pure English, and especially those who, perhaps not themselves teachers of English, strive to teach others by example as well as by precept, will sympathize with Professor Brainerd Kellogg in his struggle with the difficulties of which he treats in his recent papers in the REVIEW. I am sorry that his modesty forbade him to speak more definitely of the character and the influence of our manuals and text-books of the English language. Just as many of our school courses seem based upon a belief that anybody can teach English sufficiently well, and that this subject may be taught incidentally, without having assigned to it any definite place in the school curriculum, so it would seem to be generally believed that one need have no special training in this study, and no large knowledge, to be competent to write a text-book of English grammar or rhetoric.

Whether the great mass of our school text-books have any reason for existing other than the desire for profit or for fame on the part of publishers or writers, is a doubt that forces itself upon every one who gives the matter a moment's thought: certainly it is not an exaggeration to say that not a fourth part of our books upon English but were better unwritten; and that fully fifty per cent. of them are arrant rubbish—unscientific in conception, in arrangement, in presentation; fraught with all the dangers of ignorant charlatany.

As regards the *Don't* manuals, I am not able to controvert Professor Kellogg's condemnation of them as a whole, nor do I care to do so. But I believe that he fails to establish his case against them, in so far as it is dependent upon the examples he cites. It is a most difficult thing to determine what is and what is not good present use; however easy it may be to establish principles and dogmas. Professor Kellogg's method is certainly a scientific and valid one, provided only, that he chooses authors generally acknowledged to be masters of style, and that his reading of their works is exhaustive. But I should hesitate before accepting as conclusive a deduction from a maximum of three hundred pages of each author. Furthermore, in the preceding portion of his paper, Professor Kellogg shows how nearly impossible it is for the most watchful man to avoid errors of speech.

His collection of monstrosities is a sad one; and worse still, it might have been enlarged to almost any extent. Examples such as these—and those expressions which the consent of the fifty authors is held to justify are in nowise a distinct class—the teacher must, at least in my opinion, use, not as authority to sustain a doubtful usage, but rather as warnings, to emphasize the necessity for that incessant care which is the necessary price of accuracy in any line of human effort. Our best and most careful writers make mistakes; and that is all there is to it. Once begin to argue that the recurrence of a given error in a dozen of our best writers establishes it as good usage, and there is no line that can be drawn between the admissible and the inadmissible. For example, perhaps the error most prevalent throughout the country is that of the substitution of *will* for *shall*. Teachers, clergymen, college professors (even Professor Kellogg is guilty of "I would like"), literary men, all are guilty of it. Will any one argue that such consent establishes as good usage what is a flagrant violation of grammatical propriety? I have a better opinion of American scholarship than to believe any such thing. A few of the citations criticised may, perhaps, have slightly better authority; but all except one or two of them condemn errors which are manifestly such, by all the canons of grammatical and rhetorical purity.

I do not, of course, urge that an expression to be permissible must "parse," or must necessarily conform to the rules of analogy of the language. Quite the contrary. Language is a growth, and growth is very apt to be irregular. At the same time, there is such a thing as diseased growth. If errors persist in spite of our best efforts to eradicate them, our only course is to redouble our efforts. The stubborn persistence of sin in the world is never urged as an excuse for relaxing endeavors to crush it; and we should deal with these sins against purity of language as with sins in the moral world.

I am very truly yours,

Charles B. Gleason.

Union High School, Redlands, Cal., March 18, 1893.

"COLLEGE REQUIREMENTS IN GREEK."

Editor School Review:

SIR—In my article on *College Requirements in Greek* in the February number of *THE SCHOOL REVIEW* I find that I committed the very serious and apparently inexcusable error of classing Ripon College, Ripon, Wisconsin, among the colleges for which the preparation in Greek requires a year or less (vid. p. 77). As I now find, the requirement is, and for the past thir-

teen years has been, such as to demand two full years' study, and in recent years has included two books of the *Iliad*. It is particularly unfortunate that by such an error any recognition should be withheld from an institution which, at the risk of considerable disadvantage, has persisted in defending the highest standards.

Benj. Ide Wheeler.

Ithaca, April 3, 1893.

"BIOLOGY IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS."

Editor School Review:

SIR—The article on *Biology in Secondary Schools*, by President Coulter, which appeared in the March number of the REVIEW, suggests some questions and criticisms. First, as to minor points: Why should the term natural history be abandoned as synonymous with biology? It has always included mineralogy and geology. Under what stretching of the term can these fall under biology? Why is the current use of biology a misapplication? Everyone knows that it means human physiology, and I take it that all subjects still have some relation to the human element as the most important in the scheme of education. Is it not trivial to object to a use which no one misunderstands? I fear our professional scientists are more concerned over the inaccuracies of others than of their own, as the botanists' frequent misuse of the words grain, corn, and honey—to take very homely illustrations—shows.

Secondly, what injustice is done to children by teaching them to think that botany is the study of flowers? Children do not—nay, cannot—study botany at all; they merely learn elementary facts about plants, which pave the way for botany later on, and my experience has been that flowers still serve as the best introduction to the subject for them.

Dr. Coulter further mistakes, when he says that "a buttercup is . . . not so fit a subject for elementary study," as "a moss, or a toadstool, or a seaweed." There is a psychological principle followed in teaching, which says, proceed from the known to the unknown. The greater the step from one to the other, the greater the difficulty of taking it. Now, when one uses the word "plant", the average individual (perhaps the average botanist) immediately thinks of an object with root, stem, and green leaves, rather than of mycelium or thallus and conceptacles. So the child, and hence the step from the conventional plant to the specialized buttercup is easier than from the former to the toadstool, moss, or seaweed. To be sure, the child does not *understand* the buttercup. Is Dr. Coulter willing to say that *he* does?

Thirdly, in the excellent suggestions made as to conducting the work, the writer says that sketching an object "secures close observation". Teachers of drawing can enlighten him on this point. It has been my experience that pupils can draw and redraw an object and still not see it. A little too much has been expected from drawing in this regard.

The writer in question further says: "A careful study of typical plants should be made." This statement has been made so often that it begins to arouse a feeling of inexpressible weariness. Typical of what? Sir Richard Owen made some very pertinent remarks about typical and type specimens many years ago, which, though written concerning animals, will apply to plants.

Lastly, I desire to take issue on the statement "It is much more satisfactory and scientific to begin with the study of the simplest forms . . . because they are far easier to understand." They may be to Dr. Coulter; to the average high school pupil they are not. Professor Huxley was of this opinion some years ago but has altered it and stated his excellent reasons therefor in the revised edition of his *Practical Biology*, with a brief extract from which I have done.

"After two or three years' trial of the road from the simple to the complex, I became so thoroughly convinced that the way from the known to the unknown was easier for students, that I reversed my course, and began with such animals as a Rabbit or a Frog, about which everybody knows something."

I leave to President Coulter the pleasing task of showing that Professor Huxley is in error.

Respectfully,

F. W. Staebner.

Westfield, Mass., April 8, 1893.

BOOK DEPARTMENT.

CONDUCTED BY PRINCIPAL C. H. THURBER.

Pioneers of Science. By OLIVER LODGE, F. R. S., Professor of Physics in Victoria University College, Liverpool. pp. xv, 404. London: Macmillan & Co., 1893. Price \$2.50.

This book, finding its origin in a course of lectures delivered by the author, aims to do for the great names inseparably connected with the science of astronomy what has already been done by the *Heroes of Science* for the great botanists, zoologists, and geologists. Within a comparatively small volume, the author has given a clear idea of the various phases of the struggle through which the science has developed from the first serious questioning of the Ptolemaic System down to the latest theory of planetary evolution. This is done by a graphic treatment of the life work and, incidentally, of the times of Copernicus, Tycho Brahe, Kepler, Galileo, Descartes, Newton, Roemer, Bradley, Lagrange, Laplace, Herschel, Olbers, Bessel, Adams, and Leverrier. The work is divided into two sections: Part I, *From Dusk to Daylight*, closing with the life and work of Newton; and Part II, *A Couple of Centuries of Progress*, covering the ground from that point to the present time.

The men whose lives are described have been selected in accordance with the author's views as to what constitutes the character of a pioneer. A pioneer, he says, is one who is influenced "directly by the universe around him, has felt at times overpowered by the mystery and solemnity of it all, and has been impelled by a force stronger than himself to study it patiently, slowly, diligently; content if he could gather a few crumbs of the great harvest of knowledge, happy if he could grasp some great generalization or wide-embracing law, and so in some small measure enter into the mind and thought of the Designer of all this wondrous frame of things." Such are "the great and heaven-born men of science" who have proved to be the epoch makers in the slow growth of knowledge, and who stand out in sharp contrast with the great majority that to-day, as well as in the past, study science to gain some sordid or selfish end. Measured by this ideal, not all of the men spoken of in the book deserve the term pioneer, and could more be known of them, some of the earlier astronomers deserve a more conspicuous place.

After brief notice of Archimedes and Leonardo Da Vinci, the au-

thor really begins with Nicolas Copernik, the publication of whose work in 1543 marks the dawn of modern science. In this connection, there is brief reference to the cosmogony of the Greeks, the Egyptians, and the Hindoos; and the main features of the Ptolemaic system are set forth with as great clearness, perhaps, as the space will admit. In an effort to simplify the explanations of planetary motion offered by the Ptolemaic system, Copernicus took the first decided step towards its overthrow by proving that the sun, not the earth, is the center of the solar system.

The entire change of front wrought in the science of astronomy by Copernicus gave impulse and direction to the work of Tycho Brahe, who brought to the service of the new theory a wealth of accurate observation which secured it forever from overthrow. Tycho's theory that the planets revolve around the sun, and that it and they revolve around the earth seems like the last gasp of the Ptolemaic idea, and it did not engage serious attention; but the instruments that he devised, the observatory he established on the island of Huen, and the splendid use his genius enabled him to make of the munificence of Frederick II of Denmark, give his life and work a prominence and character the importance of which can hardly be overestimated.

It is the suggestion of law which gives intelligent direction to thought; and in the waning years of Tycho Brahe there became organically associated with his work a man, not eminent as an observer, but of a speculative mind, and peculiarly fitted by nature as a mathematician to give to Brahe's observations a wonderful interpretation. This was Kepler, who, though physically delicate, performed almost incredible labor, and, mainly from Tycho's observations, discovered the three laws of planetary motion, thereby demolishing the last vestige of the old astronomy and ushering in the new.

Law I. Planets move in ellipses with the sun at one focus.

Law II. The radius vector sweeps out equal areas in equal times.

Law III. The square of the time of revolution of each planet is proportional to the cube of its mean distance from the sun.

Through the life of the great contemporary of Kepler, Galileo Galilei, the author gives us a vivid picture of the spirit and character of the times. The period is from 1564 to 1642. The doctrines of the monk Copernicus, a hundred years before, now found philosophic expansion in the pantheism of Bruno, and his predictions, a verification through the inventions and consequent discoveries of Galileo. By his invention of the telescope, the idea having been derived from a toy constructed by a Dutch optician, Galileo was enabled to extend widely the domain of observation in the heavens. He discovered Jupiter's satellites, studied the surface of the moon, explained earth-shine, noted the phases of Venus, and discovered spots on the sun. He laid the foundation of mechanics by the discovery of the laws of motion, and demonstrated from the tower of Pisa that, under the influence of gravity

alone, all bodies fall with equal rapidity. His work on motion, accomplished chiefly in the last years of his life, after he had been compelled under torture to recant, and after he had become blind, the author regards as his most important achievement.

Following a brief but interesting review of the times, the author selects the life work of Descartes as that which best fills the gap between Galileo and Newton. His speculations leading to the theory of vortices have present value, chiefly as an object lesson in deductive methods of study; his application of algebra to geometry, however, made possible the *Principia* of Newton. In the three following chapters the author gives an interesting account of the work of Newton. While a good deal of this is beyond the grasp of the non-mathematical reader, yet even he will gather from the excellent summary of Newton's labors, given at the close of the history, a fair idea of the magnitude and importance of his work to science. The author says that the immediate effect of Newton's colossal achievements was to overwhelm his successors with a feeling of impotence and helplessness that paralyzed their efforts for a century.

The next problem of conspicuous importance which receives attention is that concerning the velocity of light. From Galileo down, the solution of this had defied the efforts of physicists; but Roemer, a Dane (1644-1710), by a proper interpretation of an observed variation in the time between the successive eclipses of one of Jupiter's satellites, determined approximately the rate at which light travels. Bradley, Professor of Astronomy at Oxford, fifty years later discovered the aberration of light, and confirmed the results reached by Roemer concerning its velocity. The splendid mathematical genius of Lagrange and Laplace was devoted to working out the higher problems of astronomy in accordance with the theory of gravitation. They proved the stability of the solar system, and that its inequalities are periodic and not cumulative; that all the changes will not have taken place until a period of two million years has passed. The brilliant speculation of Laplace which resulted in the formulation of the Nebular Hypothesis stands to-day as the most probable theory yet presented in explanation of the origin and development of the solar system.

Up to this time, the attention of astronomers had been directed mainly to the members of the solar system; it remained for William Herschel, aided by his sister Caroline, to bring the distant and fixed stars, so-called, into the domain of observation. He began the science of the stars. He discovered and catalogued twenty-five hundred stars, discovered the motion of the fixed stars, and showed that our sun is moving towards a point in the constellation Hercules.

In succeeding chapters, the author traces the triumphs which have come to astronomy by the application of mathematics to physics. The most striking and interesting result of this was

the discovery of Neptune through calculations based upon the observed perturbations of Uranus. These calculations were carried on by Leverrier in Paris and Adams in Cambridge, each unknown to the other, and, in exact accordance with their predictions, the planet was seen for the first time, knowingly, by Galle in Berlin. The book devotes one chapter to comets and meteors, and closes with two well written chapters on the theory of tides and planetary evolution.

Although the book in certain parts is too technical for the average reader, yet the general plan and method of treatment are excellent. The author shows how by careful observation, rational speculation, and accurate calculation, the science of astronomy has come to be the substantial structure it is; he gives vivid portrayal of the struggles undergone and persecutions suffered by those who had to pay the penalty or price for the position of leadership in the world, and by graphic description he gives the attentive reader some wonderful glimpses into the infinity of the universe about him. It is a book of enduring value for the library of either home or school.

Wilbur S. Jackman.

Cook County Normal School, Englewood, Ill.

Greek-English Word List. By ROBERT BAIRD, Professor of Greek in Northwestern University. Ginn & Company: Boston. 1893. pp. 42.

Every classical teacher has regretted many times that students almost universally learn the story rather than the words. Oftentimes when the translator reads most glibly, if he is asked for the meaning of words apart from their connection, he is found woefully ignorant. The enormous waste of time which this shiftless method of study produces is deplored alike by teachers and students; but still the shiftlessness continues and a half million or more lexicons and vocabularies are daily becoming needlessly worn and soiled by too frequent thumbing. None of the devices hitherto suggested for preventing this waste are satisfactory. They are either totally ineffectual or else require too much time.

Now there are four things which it is desirable to know about a Greek word: first, its general meaning—the concept which it should call up; second, its special meanings, idiomatic and figurative; third, its relation to other Greek words—its root and various differentiations; and fourth, its relation to Latin and English. It is desirable to know these four things in regard to a word just as it is desirable in regard to a friend to be acquainted with his character, his special tastes and aptitudes, his family connections, and his relation to society.

The little book under review helps us toward this quadruple acquaintance. Its forty-two pages contain two lists of about one

thousand important Greek words. The first list is arranged in a series of groups in the formation of which much skill has been shown. Some of these groups are based on root-relationship, others on similarity of meaning. In each case the definition is short and clean-cut, synonyms are nicely discriminated, and important idioms are mentioned. In connection with this list, English derivatives are given in small capitals, and Latin derivatives in heavy faced type. A few cognate Anglo-Saxon words are added in italics. Each of these lists might easily have been increased, but as the author evidently intended to make them merely suggestive, we would not criticise his work. The second list contains the same Greek words as the first, but the arrangement is alphabetical and no definitions are given.

The author suggests that two minutes a day will be a sufficient amount of time for the teacher to devote to this work, and it seems possible that this may be true. Twice or three times this amount of time, however, might easily be spared for a few weeks, just as the class is entering upon the real work of translation. With a vocabulary of a thousand well selected words, the student would easily read a great many sentences at sight, and would get vastly more satisfaction out of his work than by the usual painful and thumb-hardening process.

There is just enough of the philological element to interest. The derivatives given are all of a character which attracts by their perfect plausibility, rather than those which strike the average boy as being far-fetched. This is certainly wise, for a too recondite study of derivations often discourages, and leads the tyro to a general scepticism on the subject.

The book is elegantly printed with new type in the best style of the Athenæum Press. The inevitable typographical error occurs, but will doubtless be corrected at once. On the whole the Word List is a valuable addition to the apparatus of the Greek recitation room.

Vernon Purinton Squires.

State Normal School, Oneonta, N. Y.

French Reader, on the Cumulative Method. With vocabulary, grammatical references, and synoptical tables. By ADOLPHE DREYSPRING, PH.D. American Book Company: New York. 1892. pp. 171.

This reader is written for children, and is the story of a boy's schooling under a wise and benevolent teacher. The teacher, Mr. Bonhomme, is portrayed with fidelity and consistency, except in the episode of the cat, page 46. This incident would be hardly consistent with the character.

The vocabulary employed is an exceedingly usable one. Few words are found that might not occur in any ordinary conversation. This is the chief merit of the book. The numerous illus-

trations will be interesting to children. The paper is good, the type large, and the lines well leaded, making a handsome printed page. At the bottom of each page is given a scheme of questions for assistance and suggestion in conversation upon the topics read.

The text seems to be tolerably free from errors, though a rapid reading showed the following: *celle-là* without accent, last line, page 27; *faissait* for *faisait*, line 7, page 36; interrogation point omitted, line 11, page 43; *geux* for *yeux*, line 1, page 66; *I would* for *I should*, line 1, page 70; *baisant* for *baissant*, line 2 from bottom, page 72; *ne . . . pas* should be omitted in *qui ne nous manque pas*, lines 3 and 4, page 79; *a* should be *avait*, line 21, page 83; *gènerait* stands for *générait*, line 15, page 90; *esperons* for *espérons*, line 19 page 97; *sécouer* for *secouer*, line 4, page 98; *s'étendit* for *s'étendit*, line 9, page 98.

Not mentioning a number of expressions of doubtful authority, what would a Parisian say to *patates* (line 1, page 47) for *pommes de terre*; and *dissatisfaction* (spelled *disatisfaction* in line 10, page 92) for *mécontentement*?

The addition of the last seventy-one pages is of doubtful advisability. The arrangement of the fifty-six pages of grammatical references and tables is not adapted to the use of young pupils, while the vocabulary at the end of the book is incomplete, and, in any case, would be of little use in a book of this grade.

T. B. Bronson.

Lawrenceville School.

Civil Government in the United States Considered with Some Reference to its Origins. By JOHN FISKE. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1891. pp. xxx, 360.

"Whatever else it may be, 'government' is the power which imposes taxes." At this conclusion Mr. Fiske arrives in half-a-dozen lucid pages, and its simplicity is typical of his method. Although his book could not have been written by an author unfamiliar with the development of political theory and with modern historical methods of political investigation, he does not bewilder the pupil with superfluous speculations as to the origin of the State, or the Social Contract, or with demonstrations of the "organic" nature of political society. He contents himself with emphasizing, through the concrete and familiar fact of taxation, the essential idea that government involves compulsion. He then takes up—since he is writing a text-book of government in a democracy, a country where the people rule—that form of government in which the people rule, that is, exercise compulsion, most simply and directly. In other words, he begins with local government.

For abstract political institutions, devoid of known parentage

and without visible means of support, such as fill the average text-book on civil government, the author of "The Critical Period of American History" evinces little interest. In the discussion of local government, which occupies the first 139 pages, and indeed throughout the book, his method is historical. He explains existing political institutions by showing out of what they developed and why their development took the course it did. In consequence, many facts about government are rendered not only easy to remember, which is, to be sure, desirable from the standpoint of examinations, but also possible to understand, which is at least equally desirable from a higher point of view. State and federal government occupy the latter half of the book. "A few words about politics," which close the text, treat civil service reform, the Australian ballot and "corrupt practices" with a vigor that ought to convince, and a reserve that cannot offend.

Besides an appendix, containing, in addition to the regulation documents, the Fundamental Orders of Connecticut (1638) and such novel features as a facsimile of a Massachusetts blank ballot and a view of the interior of a polling place, there are at the end of each section "questions on the text" and further at the end of each chapter "suggestive questions." In order to answer the latter, the pupil must frequently go outside his text book to some of the other works mentioned in Mr. Fiske's "bibliographical notes." For the questions themselves the author acknowledges his obligation to Mr. F. A. Hill, Head Master of the English High School in Cambridge.

Mr. Fiske has not given us a school history of American politics. That field was already occupied by another able writer, the late Alexander Johnson. But he has given, to a large extent, such an account of the development of governmental forms in our country as will make the history of the United States doubly interesting to students of its civil government, and its civil government doubly interesting to students of its history. The book is worthy its author's high reputation. It brings two closely related subjects to one another's support in a way that no other American text-book of civil government has ever attempted. It makes far greater demands upon the teacher than the ordinary analytical compendium. But if well taught, it ought to reward the effort it requires.

Charles H. Hull.

Cornell University.

History of English Literature, vol. II, part I. (Wyclif, Chaucer, Earliest Drama, Renaissance), by BERNHARD TEN BRINK, translated by WM. CLARKE ROBINSON. New York: Henry Holt & Co.

As we take up the volume before us we are forcibly reminded

of the great loss to literary criticism through the death of its learned author. A little more than one year ago Professor Ten Brink died at the age of fifty-one. He was preëminent even among scholars in Germany, since he combined in a remarkable degree the knowledge and painstaking care of the philologist, with the delicate appreciation of the literary critic. In this respect he easily ranked first in Germany, and it is doubtful if his equal in his own special field is to be found in England or America.

But lest this high praise should be misunderstood, and in order that his work may be brought more prominently before teachers who may read this review, let me point out, if possible, in what particulars Professor Ten Brink was so eminent. First then, he exhibits nothing of purely subjective or dilettante literary criticism. There was nothing of the spirit which relies on the principle—what I like is good, and what I dislike is bad and to be condemned. He studied literature as reflecting the personality of the author, as a mirror of the age, as an artistic creation. In order to understand an author he sought to understand the time in which he lived, the sources from which he drew his materials, the special influences under which he wrote, as well as the genius of the man shown in his perfected work. In all these respects, although naturally not all of his conclusions have been accepted by scholars, he is the safest guide to our early English literature. For these reasons, therefore, his book should be placed first on the reference shelves, and be consulted with confidence both for its accuracy in fact and its wisdom in opinion.

So much for those who know Ten Brink but slightly. In particular, the volume before us deals with two principal subjects, the great poet of the middle period of our literature, Chaucer, and the early drama. The part devoted to Chaucer would alone make this volume of exceptional value, for Ten Brink has long been a foremost authority on the poet and has already published two volumes indispensable to the scholar, a Chaucer grammar and his Chaucer Studies, the results of which are embodied in the book we review. The Chaucer portion (pp. 33-206) includes a running story of Chaucer's life, of which by far the largest part is devoted to his works, discussed in chronological order, with special reference to the life of the time and the various external influences affecting the poet. A good example of Ten Brink's method may be seen in his discussion of the *Knight's Tale* (pp. 63-72). The source of this in Boccaccio's *Teseida* is first pointed out, with the relation of the *Teseida* story to the *Thebais* of Statius. The changes for artistic effect which Chaucer makes in the *Palamon and Arcite*, his first version of the story, are then shown, and finally the second version of the same story, the *Knight's Tale*, is thoroughly discussed. As an example of Ten Brink's treatment of external influences upon the poet may be cited those parts of

books VI and VII which relate to Chaucer's relations with John of Gaunt.

It is not to be expected that in part of a single volume there should be included such elaborate studies as those of Professor Lounsbury, recently published in this country, but as a concise critical commentary this volume is indispensable to the student of the greatest early English poet.

The second part of the present volume breaks off from the continuous discussion of the minor poets following Chaucer, to consider the origin of the drama and the earliest examples of it in England. The story is, in all its details, an exceedingly entertaining one, and it may be said that the material is here brought together in compact form for the first time in English. The earliest English drama arose about the middle of the thirteenth century. From that time until the outburst into full flower in the Elizabethan period, the drama exhibits a slow but gradual evolution through mysteries, miracle and morality plays, most of which give scant prophecy of a Marlowe or a Shakespeare. Still the early dramas, rude as they were, give evidence of the widespread taste for the dramatic, and with all their crudities must be considered as the seed, which sprang up to such glorious fruitage in the following centuries. One might wish for more quotations illustrating the earliest dramatic literature, but this was clearly not possible within the compass of the book before us, which we must consider as but a handbook to be used beside the more elaborate personal study of the literature itself.

There is one form of subjective criticism, often combined with literary history, which is seldom attempted in Germany and is not to be found to any considerable extent in this volume. It may be called, for want of a better name, literary interpretation. This form of criticism, almost the only one ever attempted in England, is, when well done, not only interesting but inspiring; when poorly done, however, it descends to dilettantism or sickly sentimentality. It may be urged on the one side for the present book, that this form of criticism is not strictly literary history; and it may be pointed out on the other, if a lack should be felt on that account, that literary interpretation can be most easily supplied from other sources. Nor should this be regarded as detracting in the slightest degree from this eminently scholarly work.

Another volume will complete all that we can have of Ten Brink's History of English Literature, and it is hoped that such encouragement will be given to the present work that the publishers will be stimulated to prepare the remaining part with all reasonable speed.

Oliver Farrar Emerson.

Cornell University.

NOTES.

Rousseau's Émile or Treatise on Education : Abridged, Translated and Annotated by WILLIAM H. PAYNE, PH.D., L.L.D., Chancellor of the University of Nashville and President of the Peabody Normal College. New York : D. Appleton, & Co. pp. 335.

The International Educational Series reaches its twentieth number with Rousseau's *Émile* which has been abridged, translated and annotated by Chancellor William H. Payne for this series. The educational significance of the *Émile* is luminously outlined in the editor's preface, by Dr. Harris, who concludes an admirable sketch with the words "Rousseau builded better than he knew. It, (The *Émile*) has made educators recognize the sacredness of childhood. Its author is the great pioneer in the work of studying human character as it develops in children. Without a study of the *Émile* one cannot explain Pestalozzi, Basedow, Froebel or any of the great leaders of education that belong to the present century." Dr. Payne, in his translator's introduction, analyzes and criticises with great clearness this work which he reckons as the great educational classic of the world. Defining an educational classic as "an epoch making book in the history of education" he enumerates the following list of the greater educational classics of the world : Plato's *Republic*, Aristotle's *Politics*, Plutarch's *Morals*, Quintilian's *Institutes*, the *Didactica Magna* of Comenius, Richter's *Levana*, Pestalozzi's *How Gertrude Teaches her Children*, Froebel's *Education of Man*, Rosenkranz's *Philosophy of Education*, Rabelais's *Gargantua*, Montaigne's *Essays*, Rousseau's *Émile*, Mulcaster's *Positions*, Ascham's *Schoolmaster*, Locke's *Thoughts*, Spencer's *Education*. An appendix contains some interesting French estimates of Rousseau. The last thirty-five pages of the book are occupied with an admirable analytical table of contents which to many readers will be the most valuable and helpful feature of all.

C. H. T.

Lectures on the History of Education, with a Visit to German Schools. By the late JOSEPH PAYNE. Edited by his son, Joseph Frank Payne, M.D. 8 vo., pp. 313. London and New York : Longmans, Green & Co. 1892. \$2.50.

This work has for many years been well known to American teachers, but the present handsome edition, which will be regarded as the authoritative one, possesses many advantages that will commend it to those who already appreciate the great intrinsic value of the work. The editor has been able in the notes to supply much information as to sources, and to fill up lacunae in the text as no one else could have done. The illustrations

comprise an uncommon collection of portraits of great educators. Professor Payne was a notable pioneer in a field that is now rapidly increasing in public favor. Much of his best work and thought is here most worthily embodied. The book is one of the very best for the province it covers, and indispensable to every student of education.

C. H. T.

Masterpieces of American Literature: with biographical sketches. pp. 462. Price \$1.00. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

This is a volume called into existence by the desire of the Boston school authorities for a collection of productions from American authors of distinction especially for use in the most advanced class in the grammar schools. Its contents are made up mostly of selections from the American Literary Series. The authors represented are Franklin, Irving, Bryant, Webster, Everett, Hawthorne, Longfellow, Whittier, Emerson, Holmes, Lowell, Thoreau, O'Reilly, surely a most catholic and judicious representation. The various authors are represented by characteristic and noted productions well selected to develop the sense of what real literature is both in form and spirit. Variety of styles in prose and poetry is given to adapt the book to oral reading. The biographical sketches of the authors represented are long enough to be interesting. That of Hawthorne, for example, covers five solid pages. The book has already been tested by experience and found to serve well in other places the ends for which it was distinctly prepared in the Boston schools.

C. H. T.

The Land of the Cliff-Dwellers. By FREDERICK H. CHAPIN. pp. 182. 60 illustrations. Boston. The Appalachian Mountain Club. W. B. Clarke & Co. Cloth \$2.25.

A more interesting book than *The Land of the Cliff-Dwellers* is seldom given to the public. It is a faithful and most entertaining record of personal exploration among the remains of a vanished civilization in one of the least accessible regions of the American Continent. Mr. Chapin investigated thoroughly this region and studied most carefully the traces left by the ancient inhabitants as no one else, to our knowledge, has done. The book is, therefore, an original contribution to ethnology and archæology of great value. But it is, besides, just full enough of the elements of romance and adventure to charm readers of all ages. The book is one of the very best we know of for supplementary reading, along with the study of the geography of this continent, and of U. S. history. Students will need no encouragement to read it if it is put within their reach. Too much cannot be said for the illustrations. Mr. Chapin's Rocky Mountain

photographs are celebrated as the best ever taken in that region. Most of the plates are so good that the details are, it would seem, improved in the process of reproduction. The scenes chosen reveal in the photographs the artist as well as the explorer.

C. H. T.

Epitome of Ancient, Mediæval and Modern History. By CARL PLOETZ; translated with extensive additions, by WILLIAM H. TILLINGHAST. 9th ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. pp. 618.

The appearance of the ninth edition of this standard work is in itself sufficient indication of its approved usefulness. In the present edition all discovered errors have been corrected. A distinguished professor of history in one of our leading universities recently advised a friend who was engaged upon some work in which chronological accuracy was essential that the new *Tillinghast's Ploetz* was by far the most reliable work of reference available for that purpose. This high commendation is undoubtedly fully deserved. The new edition of the book will be welcomed by historical students as bringing still nearer perfection a work that was already *facile princeps* in its particular field.

C. H. T.

How do You Spell It? or Words as they Look. With an appendix defining many commercial and business terms in every-day use. By W. T. C. HYDE. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. pp. 342. Price \$1.00.

"If," says the compiler of this volume, "there is anything in the realm of literature which ought to meet with instant and hearty approval it is some easy and practical method of teaching English orthography." Few will be found to disagree with this statement. While bringing a serious indictment against the spelling of the English language, Mr. Hyde believes that it is destined to endure a good while, and the best thing to do is to direct our energies toward developing some practical way of learning the English orthography. The essential features of Mr. Hyde's way are a list in alphabetical order of the words likely to be misspelled, in which the letters ordinarily ill treated are printed in heavy black face type. It claims, moreover, to contain the largest compilation of homophonous words ever published. It is not a spelling book, but a book to keep at hand on the desk for use when a troublesome word has to be spelled. Few of us are so far along as to despise aids in spelling, and a unique attempt, such as this, to meet a real difficulty ought at least to have a fair trial.

C. H. T.

A Short History of English Literature for Young People. By MISS E. S. KIRKLAND. With illustrations. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. pp. 398. Price \$1.25.

This work, intended as a companion to the Short History of France and Short History of England by the same writer, might well be described as an attempt to introduce young people to the study of literature. The narrative begins with Gildas and comes down to Tennyson. It makes no pretense to be more than a condensed description of English literature. The style is pleasant, and the selections show wide reading and good judgment. The practical usefulness of the book is subserved by a good index and its attractiveness increased by eleven full page portraits. The book is likely to do much in realizing its author's desire to encourage and foster in young people a real fondness for literature, or at least a personal interest in great authors, for the treatment is almost entirely biographical.

C. H. T.

Longmans' Summary of English History, from the Earliest Time.

With ten maps and full genealogical tables. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. pp. 160.

This little book does in a way for English history something of the service that *Ploetz's Epitome* does for universal history. It will be found dry reading, but makes an excellent syllabus, covering as it does the whole period from the early inhabitants before the Saxon Conquest down to 1891. It presents a valuable consecutive array of facts.

C. H. T.

La Cigale chez les Fourmis. With notes by W. H. WITHERBY—*Les Enfants Patriotes.* With notes by W. S. LYON—*Une Aventure du Célèbre Pierrot.* With notes by R. E. PAIN. D. C. Heath & Co.

Teachers of modern languages are frequently reminded of their indebtedness to the firm of D. C. Heath & Company by the appearance of a new number in the Heath Modern Language Series. With the vast storehouse of French and German literature to draw on, this series is rendering a real service to teachers by giving opportunity for a variety in texts. Nothing is more stupid than reading over and over again the same tale in French or German. Teachers who shrink from a novelty, or dread the extra work involved in reading a new book, may not appreciate this horror; but every alert, progressive teacher will be glad of an opportunity to break the necessary monotony of his work. Generally any one of a considerable number of texts will answer the object of the class equally well. The interests of the teacher are better served by reading six different texts in six different years than by reading the same thing over six times.

C. H. T.

CURRENT EDUCATIONAL LITERATURE.

CONDUCTED BY PRINCIPAL J. E. RUSSELL.

Contemporary Educational Thought in Germany. E. VON SALLWÜRK.
Educational Review (N. Y.). April, 1893. pp. 313-324.

The science of pedagogics in Germany, after a half century of experiment, is largely overruled by political and religious interests and by the peremptory demands of the practical education that leads to a special calling. Pestalozzi's pedagogics has not proved itself adapted for the decision of the higher questions, and Herbart's system, revolutionary as it is, could gain no footing even in the Gymnasium until made available by Dir. O. Frick. Germany, since 1866 and 1870, has become a nation. Where formerly the intellect of Germany turned to abstract studies there is now a demand for practical training. This necessitates a change of our entire system of instruction, and it may be assumed with safety that one-sidedness, exaggerations, and grievous errors will be the result.

In 1890 the "Gymnasial Seminar" was organized in Prussia. This was the result of the unsatisfactory manner of introducing candidates to the work of education. It required of all candidates a year of special training in a Gymnasium in addition to the former requirements of a university course and a year of trial teaching. That this sort of preparation is too costly and too uncertain, is apparent on the surface. Changes altogether greater and more comprehensive were next demanded. Then comes the charge: *Our higher school system is no longer adapted to the times.* The will of the Emperor compelled the educational authorities in Berlin to take the lead in a movement to fit our educational system for the ends of practical life and for the higher tasks of the nation. Thus came about the Berlin School Conference, of Dec., 1890. The results are of little significance. German and gymnastics have secured more attention at the expense of the foreign languages. According to the new programme, which appeared in Jan., '92, instruction in the modern foreign languages shall from the beginning keep practical exercise in view. This meets with general favor, but the classical philologists still maintain that instruction in Latin and Greek must be strictly systematic and more scientific. Von Gossler, who secured this reform failed to establish a public school law for Prussia. He aimed to retain the supervision of the state over the entire public school system, but placed the direct control in the hands of the parishes, so that they thereby became controllers of the foundations established for the public school. The proposition gave to the clergy the superintendence of religious instruction and seats in the local boards of school directors. But the Catholics saw in it a blow at the supremacy of the Church. Without the support of the Catholic Center it could not become a law; Von Gossler was dismissed and the law fell with him.

In January, 1892, Count von Zedlitz-Trütschler introduced a new measure. The demands of the Ultramontanes were conceded. The whole public school was to be delivered over to the churches and the bureaucracy. The clergy were to have a controlling voice in the examination of candidates, and the schools were to be separated according to the religious beliefs of the children. It was essentially a political move and as such was vigorously opposed. The universities entered a protest against it as mocking at

the spirit of modern education. In March, '92, Zedlitz was dismissed. The promise of a law to regulate the entire system of instruction in Prussia remains still unfulfilled.

Germany, as almost all Europe, is heavily clogged by its old culture. Science and public life forcibly urge an advance, but old forces of culture like the church persist firmly in their reactionary tendencies.

J. E. R.

The Practical Pedagogical Training of Secondary Teachers in Germany.

Dr. J. Loos. Zeitschrift für die österreichischen Gymnasien. February, 1893. pp. 145-171.

The author classifies as follows the systems of training teachers adopted in the institutions he visited: I., by the probationary year (Saxony, Baden, Alsace); II., by the seminaries—(1) connected with the university (Jena, where a model school is attached; Leipzig and Heidelberg, where other practical aids are used), (2) connected with the upper schools (the older institutions in Berlin, Stettin, Halle, and Giessen; the more modern in Berlin, Stettin, Bonn, Cologne, and Jena). The year of probation is everywhere considered insufficient; in Saxony and Baden it is preceded by seminary training, in Alsace and Bavaria it will soon be supplanted. As to the substitute, the author believes that the looser the connection is between the university and the practical pedagogic training, and the more closely the latter is incorporated into the actual work of the school, the better it will be on both hands. The university's sphere is pedagogic science, historical, psychological, ethical; the practical instruction must center in the schools. The probationary year is defective in that it is not methodical and exhaustive, moreover each candidate works by himself and in a narrow groove. Many problems must be solved by all alike; it would be better were they considered in common.

As a specimen Seminary, the one at Giessen, opened in 1876 with Dr. H. Schiller as director, may be described. Dr. Schiller began with great difficulties; this one especially, that no candidates were to be had, as pedagogic training seemed to be unnecessary, indeed a loss of time. The government offered stipends, and gradually students were attracted. Dr. Schiller undertakes the solution of three problems: in connection with the University the candidates receive a training in pedagogic theory; the typical educational surroundings, appliances and conditions are to be presented; candidates are to be initiated into the actual work of teaching. For the first purpose there are lectures and examinations; also seminary conferences on all related subjects. Secondly, the candidate becomes familiar with a model school building, with its playground, gymnasium, library, apparatus; its programme, recesses, home-work, hygienic supervision, games, etc. The third object is met by visiting model recitations held by the teacher of the primary school, by actual teaching in the primary school, after written preparation, and by criticism of this teaching. This for two months, after which the same plan is carried out in the *gymnasium*.

Wm. Strunk, jr.

The Teacher's Training of Himself. REV. J. E. C. WELLDON. The Contemporary Review. March, 1893. pp. 369-386.

The educational profession is great in itself, and great in the men and women who have belonged to it. In all its branches it aspires incessantly to two objects, viz., the promotion of virtue and the increase of knowledge. The profession is rising in public esteem and is gradually gaining power in the state. But if a teacher is to train others he must train himself. It is more important to take in knowledge than to give it out. The influence of

every teacher depends not upon what he says, nor even upon what he does, but upon what he is.

The educational profession is fraught with serious responsibility. Nowhere are the chances for doing harm so great. The power of injuring pupils is correlative to the power of benefiting them. "When pupils love the master," says a Jesuit teacher, "they will soon love his teaching." In a word the teacher's true temper towards his pupils, especially when they are boys in a large school, is one of sympathetic severity. Discipline is the alpha of the scholastic alphabet. But severity without sympathy is a guarantee of failure. A morally bad boy deserves not your sympathy while actively doing harm to others; he should be removed. The backward boy needs encouragement. Master and mistresses may perhaps be hopeless; but boys and girls, never. Lack of time is the chief difficulty in properly dealing with extreme cases. There is some one solution better than all others. One may be sympathetic and yet fail of the highest ends. Want of tact in dealing with pupils and parents has been the ruin of many a fine career. Courtesy to parents begets good-will in the home and reacts upon the pupils, courtesy begets courtesy; it is a passport to popularity. One special point of personal courtesy is punctuality. It is of the highest importance to teachers. Good temper, too, is a quality indispensable to it. Avoid sarcasm. Believe me, kindness is a greater power than sternness. He is the successful teacher who enlists his pupils' sympathy on the side of order and virtue. But if good temper is essential to courtesy, good health is essential to good temper. To be well is often the true secret of teaching well. Indigestion is the mother of indiscretion. Plenty of sleep and exercise must be secured.

Every profession has its own dangers; it tends to create a certain type of character. Education is a hard task-master. It allows its votaries scanty and precarious leisure. Nor is it a slight matter that schoolmasters, from the nature of their profession, are set perpetually in relation to their inferiors. The habit of issuing commands is dangerous for him who commands. He becomes imperious and arbitrary. He grows impatient of opposition. It is necessary then that the teacher take every opportunity of enlarging and liberalizing his views. All education is prospective. The end is character. The teacher's influence is not only for the present but for the future. He should look ahead, therefore, and increase in wisdom. The history of educational progress and educational science should be better known. We spend much of our lives in beating over threshed straw. If we can learn lessons from the past, let me suggest the possibility of learning something from the men of to-day. The young teacher should be teachable, but I have been surprised at times at the reluctance of beginners to ask or accept the help that was open to them. Many teachers fail, not that they do not live up to their ideals, but because their ideals have been low. One can hardly put his ideals too high. The more you know, the more you think, the better teachers will you be. Read much; read for instruction, read for recreation. Find time for it. Have method in your work and you will save time. It is not work that kills, but arrears of work; work put off is work put on with heavy interest. Not only in term-time is there a chance for self-improvement, but the long vacations especially favor the school-master. He should see to it that in some way he may recover the energy, the elasticity, which is the secret, as it is the source, of effective teaching. *J. E. R.*

Remarks on the New Prussian Course of Study in Latin. DR. W. FRIES. Lehrproben und Lehrgänge aus der Praxis der Gymnasien und Realschulen. (Halle a. S.) Feb., 1893. pp. 1-36.

Of the nine years' course of study in Latin, the first two years are devoted chiefly to acquiring the grammatical elements. The work of the next four

years, or "middle grade," is the subject under discussion. In the "middle grade," grammar and reading are co-ordinate; in the lowest, grammar is of prime importance; in the highest (*i. e.*, last three years), grammar becomes entirely subordinate to reading. Since but one hour a week is to be devoted to grammar in the "highest grade," and this hour to be used chiefly for review of principles, the instructor in the "middle grade" occupies a highly responsible position. It is absolutely necessary that he thoroughly systematize his work in order to omit nothing of importance. Follows a systematic outline of the course of the 3d, 4th, 5th, and 6th years (*Quarta, Untertertia, Obertertia, Untersekunda*).

READING. (a) *Subject matter and amount of same.* In *Quarta* first semester, three of the seven hours, in the second sem., four of the seven, are to be devoted to reading. Poetry is excluded. Nepos in Stein's or Müller's edition is chosen. The following "lives" are to be read: Miltiades, Themistocles, Aristides, Cimon, Alcibiades, Thrasybulus, Epaminondas, Pelopidas, Hamilcar, Hannibal. In *Untertertia* four hours a week throughout the year are given to Caesar. In *Obertertia* poetry takes up six weeks of each semester, *i. e.*, forty-eight to fifty lessons in all; the rest of the time is taken up by Caesar. It is of great advantage to have so much reading from one author. In spite of remarks to the contrary, the *Gallic War* is interesting to boys. The suggestion that chapters 30-54 of the first book be omitted in the beginning and be read later is rejected. It is discouraging to a pupil to be told at the very outset that such and such passages are too hard for him. It is the duty of the teacher to help in the preparation of such lessons. The whole of the *Gallic War*, with but few omissions, is to be studied. In *Untertertia* the first three books should be read, in *Obertertia* the remaining four books.

Untersekunda is divided among Cicero, Livy and poetry (Vergil or Ovid). The Manilian Law on account of its political contents, attractive presentation, and clear and precise divisions should be read first. On this "there is scarcely any difference of opinion." Two orations against Catiline, preferably the first and second are also included. Of Livy the 21st book. Vergil is discussed in a separate article.

(b) *Plan of Teaching.* The question whether these works shall be read slowly or rapidly must be answered by every individual teacher. The difficulty of various passages and the capacity of the class must determine. Explanation should be given of form and content. Formerly, too much attention was paid to grammar. The new course lays stress on content. The pupil should be given an idea of the intellectual life and civilization of the Romans. He should acquire the power of grouping the events related by the author and seeing them clearly. He should study the factors which make up an army, "what are the means and conditions of victory, how the personality of a great leader affects the soldiers," etc. He should study the historical background which gives persons and events their peculiar significance. In the case of Nepos, the synchronous instruction in history gives ample opportunity; but in the case of Caesar such study must not be neglected. The following topics are suggested: 1. The man Caesar. (a) His career previous to, and his position at, the time of the *Gallic War*. (b) His plans. Bearing of his successes in Gaul on his future career. 2. The power of the Roman people at that time. Increase of same through the subjugation of Gaul and the intimidation of neighboring tribes. 3. Historical significance of the conquest and "Romansierung" of north-western Europe. 4. Contact with Britons and Germans. References to later conquests in both countries. 5. Historical and patriotic interest attaching to (a) The Gauls. National character; *disciplina druidum*; (b) The Britons; (c) The Germans.—Also Caesar's description of country and people a fore-runner of Tacitus's *Germania*. The repeated appearance of Germans in Gaul, a continuation of the wars of the Cimbri and Teutons on the one hand, and on the other hand, a fore-runner of the Migration of Peoples.

It is not intended that the teacher indulge in long or frequent *Excursus*; this would be tiresome and distracting. But he shall introduce remarks on these topics as opportunity offers, but must see to it that at *some time the various remarks be gathered and presented as a whole*. Cicero's orations are to be studied in a similar manner.

To do all this is very difficult, but the results will amply repay the work. Above all things the interest of the pupil should be awakened before hand and his curiosity aroused. (Principle of apperception.)

The course of study prescribes that the study of each new author or work be preceded by careful instruction in preparing lessons. In *Quarta* a whole semester is devoted to this purpose. This instruction is of the highest importance. Grammatical connection and the meaning of words must be carefully taught. The pupil must learn to derive, if possible, the meaning of new words from words already in his possession. He must also be taught the use of the dictionary. All this must be done systematically. First the teacher reads carefully, with proper emphasis, the whole sentence. Then follow grammatical analysis and lexical explanations. After the pupil has been given a few moments to think, he is called on to translate. In translations, foreign words and idioms are to be avoided. Moreover, the teacher must bridge over by skillful questions and hints any chasms between parts of the narrative and show the drift of the story. Finally, after a section has been thoroughly gone over and is understood, the teacher offers a model translation.

Not until such instruction as the above has been given for weeks, shall the teacher demand home preparation. Even then he must not fail to look ahead and remove before hand special difficulties. If, also, many new words occur in a lesson, he shall tell the meanings of these outright and thus save the pupil the thankless, dreary task of thumbing the lexicon. The constant use of maps cannot be too strongly urged. All possible aids by means of pictures, models, etc., should be given.

What order shall be pursued in reciting a lesson which has been prepared at home? First, translation by the pupil. Interrupt him as little as possible. Never ridicule his translation. Then a discussion of the form and content of each section. Great care should be exercised in the selection of exactly the right word. Then a brief discussion of the connection between this lesson and what has gone before as well as what is to follow. Not until now shall the text itself be read aloud and again translated. Finally the teacher reads and gives a model translation.

EXERCISES IN CONNECTION WITH THE READING. Special attention must be given to new words and phrases, and the more frequently recurring ones thoroughly impressed. The classification of words with reference to the frequency of their occurrence as given in one of the latest American editions is reproduced. Synonyms must be studied. This is a difficult task, and ought to be discussed by teachers. At present there is no unity of method. Style is to be taken up "empirically" in connection with reading, and the pupil's knowledge enlarged "in concentric circles."

Translations into the author's Latin (*Rückübersetzungen*) are prescribed in all classes of the "middle grade." The passages chosen ought not to be difficult. Rapid sight-translation should not be neglected, but cannot be practised as much as formerly.

GRAMMAR. (a) *Amount*. In the new course of study, the amount of grammar prescribed does not, on the whole, differ from that prescribed in the old, except that stress is laid on limiting the work to the *essentials*. What these essentials are, must be left to the judgment of the teacher. But it would be well for a teacher of a school to discuss this matter from time to time. In *Quarta* a few remarks on the syntax of the verb will suffice. Several points already taken up in *Quinta* may be reviewed, e. g. the acc. c. inf., the common participial constructions, and the essentials of the gerundive. To these may be added the sequence of tenses, indirect questions, and

constructions after verbs of fearing. Occasional repetitions of accident are absolutely necessary. In *Untertertia* the syntax of nouns and adjectives must be reviewed, and some insight into modes and tenses be given. In *Obertertia* the course in modes and tenses is reviewed and completed, and in *Untersekunda* follows "der zusammenfassende Abschluss."

(b) *Method of Teaching.* Grammar ought not to be taught inductively, if by that we mean that it shall confine itself to such principles only as are illustrated in the text read. On the other hand a new principle should never be enunciated until it has been derived by the pupil from a number of examples, taken, if possible, from the text. The rule is now committed to memory and the teacher tests the class by extemporized oral exercises. Finally the "translation book" is used. The content of the sentences in this book should "lean" on the text. Expressions in the mother tongue should be varied constantly.

WRITTEN EXERCISES. The new course of study prescribes written work in Latin composition, although there is no lack of those who oppose the writing of Latin altogether. These exercises must all be constructed by the teacher and their extent left to his discretion.

Résumé. In the new course of study, the time given to Latin in the "middle grade" has been curtailed, "its aims in the direction of grammar, somewhat, though on the whole, not essentially, lowered, for now as then, nay, more definitely than formerly, there must be a complete rounding out, a sufficient and firm basis be given for the 'upper grade.' This can be attained in no other way than by intensive teaching which concentrates its strength on one central point, and from this point exercises control in all directions and over all side issues." This demand is so just that no one can oppose it. The time, when the success or failure of the work under the new conditions will be apparent, is close at hand. It is hoped and believed that the results of the test will, as far as the "middle grade" is concerned, "remove fears, awaken hopes and strengthen confidence."

A. F. Kuersteiner.

English Grammar and English Literature. The Educational Review (London). February, 1893. pp. 189-194.

In the discussion of the above named subject at the Head Masters' Conference, Rev. J. E. C. Welldon, head master of Harrow, said: High authorities have regarded the teaching of English Grammar as being indispensable to a right understanding of the grammar of other languages. A most successful teacher of Latin grammar and Latin prose says, "Every step in that difficult task—the acquisition of the first principles of Latin syntax—may be made interesting and fruitful by some initiation into the structure and analysis of English sentences." The present system of teaching Latin and Greek grammar does not enable the majority of boys to understand the principles of their own language. Very many boys are not able to specify the parts of speech in their mother tongue; and if a boy does not understand the meaning and nature of a sentence upon which he is engaged, there is little probability of his being able to convert it into correct Latin. A feeling of dismay has come over me at finding, in my own school, many boys who are growing up in ignorance not only of the standard works of literature in the past—the works of Spenser, Shakespeare and Milton, but of the works of authors who may be thought to come home to them more closely, such as Scott, Tennyson, and even Dickens. This is due, doubtless, to some extent, to the fact that boys' minds are more set upon athletics than they were formerly. But the real evil lies in two causes. One is that the boy's time is more filled up than it was. Some schoolmasters seem to live in a state of chronic fear of leaving boys with any leisure, so that the opportunities, that a studious boy has of cultivating

his tastes, are very much less than they were fifty years ago. There I should put the growth of those periodicals which, whatever value they may have, cannot be regarded as standard works, and which take up a great deal of time that boys might otherwise give to literature of a more valuable character,—I mean the newspapers of sport and society, and the illustrated prints, because boys are rapidly becoming incapable of appreciating a newspaper unless it is illustrated. If boys leave school without any appreciation of literature, it is hardly likely that they will get that appreciation in later life. The only way that a boy is apt to acquire a literary style of his own is by the study of works in which literary style is exhibited to most advantage. And English literature is in its nature more attractive than most studies that are recommended to boys. One drawback to the study of literature lies in the character of the editions of some English literary works. There is too much tendency to look upon these works as pegs upon which to hang philological notes. This is essentially true of Wright and Clarke's edition of Shakespeare. It is not impossible, however, to edit literary works in a literary spirit, and if that can be done, boys will take to them more kindly.

George G. Brower.

On the Class Teaching of Perspective. H. A. JAMES. The Journal of Education (London). April, 1893. pp. 197-200.

The writer's object is to describe to the initiated the method of teaching which reason and experience recommend to his private judgment as most natural and effective. He holds that the first thing necessary is a concise and complete classification of lines, since the direction of the lines in the drawing is determined solely by the position of the lines to be represented. He would make constant use for illustration of the well known device of a gauze picture-plane erected upon a horizontal board. He would first divide all lines into those that meet—or that produced would meet—the picture-plane and those that are parallel to the picture-plane. The former he again divides into horizontal lines and slant lines. Indeed, he further subdivides them, and his final classification is as follows:

- I. Horizontal lines at right angles to the picture-plane.
- II. Horizontal lines inclined obliquely to the picture-plane.
- III. Slant lines lying in a vertical plane which is at right angles to the picture-plane.
- IV. Slant lines lying in a vertical plane which is inclined obliquely to the picture-plane.
- V. Lines parallel to the picture-plane.

He calls attention to class V., which appears the simplest, but which he considers most difficult to deal with, since these lines can be projected only indirectly and by the use of lines of the other four classes.

He next would aim at a clear conception of what he calls the direction law. *The line joining the point where the given line meets (or produced would meet) the picture-plane with the point in which that plane is met by a parallel line drawn from the eye is the entire projection of the given line.* In exemplifying this and other laws he would especially attempt to rouse the "geometrical imagination," using the screen or any other device that would be likely to appeal to the particular student. He would not at first call attention to the center of vision as the vanishing point of lines in class I. but would familiarize the student with the fact that the direction law and the vanishing point derived from it are equally applicable to all lines of the first four classes. Only at this point would he begin work on paper, and at first he would confine the work to projections of entire lines—that is, from their intersections with the picture-plane to their vanishing points. He would not hesitate to introduce at once the student to classes III. and IV.,

but inducing their vanishing points, would use diagrams on separate paper.

Having familiarized the student with the projection of entire lines, he would next attempt the projection of particular points on known lines. He defines *point-distance* to be the distance of the given point from the one terminal of the line's entire projection; and *eye-distance* to be the distance of the eye from the vanishing point. He then gives the *section law*:—*The projection of any point on a line divides the entire projection of that line in the ratio of point-distance to eye-distance.*

Class V., according to his scheme, could not logically be discussed until after the other four. It is obvious that an entire projection of a line of class V. is not possible, since it is infinite in length. It must, therefore, be treated always in connection with lines of the other classes. Finite sections of lines of class V. may be determined by means of two parallel lines, usually of class I. or II. All this is only preparatory. They yet have to put their knowledge in practice by placing in perspective plane and solid figures in different positions. They ought, however, to be able to solve these problems for themselves, and to exercise independent judgment.

H. S. Gutsell.

Short-Sightedness and the School. Dr. H. WINGERATH. Central Organ f. d. Interessen des Realschulwesens, XXI, März, 1893. pp. 129-178.

(1) The first section of the article is occupied with a polemical reply to Cohn's criticism of the author's paper "Kurzichtigkeit u. Schule," and with a defence of Donders against the same writer.

(2) It is generally supposed that short-sightedness and industry are in some way connected. The position is non-proven. Myopia has also been (in whole or part) ascribed to the use of forms of unhealthy height or shape, or to that of sloped writing. Improvements have been suggested (vertical writing, stenography). Faults of construction and illumination of the school-room have been emphasized. As a matter of fact, the chief reform must be not hygienic but pedagogic. There must be an equilibrium of realistic and humanistic education.

(3) Some statistics of myopia from Germany, France, England, and North America are briefly reviewed. They need not alarm us: short-sightedness is a harmless product of civilization, which appears among all races with the appearance of the school.

(4) Stilling's theory of muscular pressure, as the explanation of school myopia, is discussed. This is due mainly to heredity and to work at close quarters: the part played by each factor cannot be at present determined. Heredity is certainly strongly operative.

(5) Stilling, following out his theory, connects hereditary myopia with the general build of the skull, and with that of the orbit in particular. The matter is not ripe for discussion. But few measurements are extant, and these are not unobjectionable, when claimed as a support of the theory.

(6) What evidence there is, however, tells for Stilling. Unfortunately, work at close quarters must be done; so that pedagogy takes the word before hygiene. The school physician is to be abolished, and his place taken by the school management in general. Teachers will thus be more responsible and know more. In time it is to be hoped that they will have money and position enough to be able to marry.

(7) Bibliography.

E. B. T.

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The Aesthetic Element in Morality and its Place in a Utilitarian Theory of Morals, by Frank Charman Sharp, Ph.D. pp. 131. Price 75 cents.

The Gospel of St. Luke in Anglo-Saxon, edited from the Manuscripts with an Introduction, Notes, and a Glossary, by James W. Wright, Ph.D., Associate Professor of English Philology in the Johns Hopkins University. pp. 158.

From the American Book Co.:

English Kings in a Nutshell: An Aid to the Memory, by Gail Hamilton. pp. 81. Price 60 cents.

Elements of Arithmetic for Primary and Intermediate Classes in Public and Private Schools, by William J. Milne, Ph.D., LL.D., President of New York State Normal College, Albany, N. Y. pp. 240. Price 30 cents.

From D. C. Heath & Co.:

Les Enfants Patriotes par G. Bruno, edited with notes, vocabulary, and appendixes, by W. S. Lyon, M.A. pp. 82. Price 25 cents.

Une Aventure du Célèbre Pierrot par Alfred Assollant, edited with notes, vocabulary, and appendixes, by R. E. Pain, M.A. pp. 83. Price 25 cents.

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The Ingenious Gentleman: Don Quixote of La Mancha, by Miguel De Cervantes Saavedra. John Ormsby's translation abridged and edited for the use of schools by Mabel F. Wheaton. pp. 272.

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Development Helps, by C. B. Van Wie, Professor of Pedagogics in the State Normal College at Florence, Alabama. A work for Practice-Teaching. pp. 91.

John Amos Comenius, Bishop of the Moravians: His Life and Educational Works, by S. S. Laurie, A.M., F.R.S.E., Professor of the Institutes and History of Education in the University of Edinburgh. Reading-Circle Edition, with five authentic portraits, and a new bibliography with fifteen photographic reproductions from early editions of his works. pp. 272. Price \$1.00.

A History of the Schools of Syracuse from its Early Settlement to January 1, 1893, by Edward Smith. pp. 347. Price \$3.00.

Descriptive Geography Taught by Means of Map Drawing. Teachers' Edition for Map Drawing Books of the Continents, Map Drawing Books of the United States, by Eva Wilkins. pp. 129. Price \$1.50.

